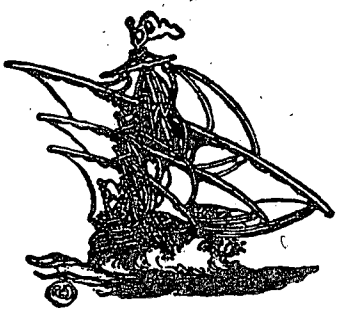
THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

JULY 15, 1923



The Self-Conscious Community

And Its National Relationships

The Black Folk Are Coming On

By Martha Bensley Bruère

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Vol. L, No. 8 — The Survey: Midmonthly Number — July 15, 1923

ALBERT LEVITT (p. 449) has recently been a fellow in law at Yale University, after holding a professorship in law at George Washington University.

THE FRONTISPIECE of this issue is in spirit and subject one of Jerome Myers' characteristic studies.

THE MAP on page 337 of The Survey for June 15, showing legal working hours for women, was through error credited to the Children's Bureau, instead of the Women's Bureau, of the United States Department of Labor.

THE FRIENDS in Buzuluk are laying especial stress this summer on the anti-malaria campaign (p. 445) and on the effort to secure horses for the peasants, who are coming out of their second winter of hunger with good hope for the future if the means of production —and the health with which to work—are assured.

SURVEY readers are familiar with Charles Cestre's correspondence from Paris, where he is professor of American civilization at the Sorbonne. His note on Apprenticeship in France (p. 436) recalls especially the article on The Labor Situation in France which he contributed to Survey Midmonthly for April 15, 1923.

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CONTENTS

THE COMMON WELFARE - - - - - - - - - 423

More Light on Tuberculosis—Meiklejohn the Teacher—If We Must Live in Cities—Freedom with a String—The Way of Progress—Let Not Thy Right Hand— —A Raid Repulsed?

The Self-Conscious Community - - - - - *G. S.* 427

Sea Wash - - - - - - - - - *Lucille Lippitt* 431

INDUSTRY - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 432

The Black Folk Are Coming On, *Martha Bensley Bruère*—Vacations with Pay, *Grace Pugh*—Apprenticeship in France, *Charles Cestre*

COMMUNITIES - - - - - - - - - - - - - 437

Bide-A-Wee and The Cedars, *Bruno Lasker*—Controlling City Growth—Richmond's "It"

HEALTH - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 441

How Little We Know! *Raymond Pearl*—Mad Dog! *Haven Emerson, M.D.*—East Siders in "the Mountains," *N. B. Fagin*

The Devil and the Quaker - - - *Jessica Smith* 445

SOCIAL PRACTICE - - - - - - - - - - - 446

Why They Tell, *Mary Edna McChristie*—For Pennsylvania Patriarchs—The Nature of an Oath, *Albert Levitt*

EDUCATION - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 450

Summer School South of the Rio Grande, *Fannie E. Ratchford*—Academic Bolshevism—This Sort of Thing

BOOK REVIEWS - - - - - - - - - - - - - 454

The Plumb Plan for Industry, *John A. Ryan, D.D.*—The Mysteries of Children's Minds, *Ira S. Wile, M.D.*—Ethics and Ethical Culture, *R. S. Lynd*—Boxing the Educational Compass, *J. K. H.* —The Why and How of Preventive Medicine, *Allan J. McLaughlin*—The Trade Cycle—Paging the Middle Class, *R. W. B.*—The Social Effects of Syphilis, *Alex N. Thompson, M.D.*—The Persecuted Jews in Hungary—And the President Said to Me—

COMMUNICATIONS - - - - - - - - - - - 460

DR. EMERSON, The Survey's health editor, who writes of rabies (p. 442), has been recently engaged in a hospital survey in San Francisco.

THE FULL Report of a Study of the Interrelation of the Work of National Social Agencies in Fourteen American Communities, summarized on p. 427, may be secured from the National Information Bureau, Inc., 1 Madison Avenue, New York.

IT WAS in a Baltimore laundry that Lucille Lippitt heard the call "Boat Special" and took her turn at sea wash (p. 431). She is now associated with the Young Women's Christian Association of Meadville, Pa. The sketch grew out of a diary which itself was the record of a summer's industrial adventuring.

RUTH CRAWFORD, contributing editor of The Survey in the field of immigration, has recently accepted a position on the staff of the Foreign Language Information Service, New York, to which she brings a keen perception of the problem of race relationship developed through service with the Department for Foreign-born Women of the National Board of the Y. W. C. A. and more recently through special study at Johns Hopkins University.

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THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

July 15, 1923

Volume L
No. 8

The Common Welfare

ON July 28 and 29, nine years after the war began, there is to be an international No More War demonstration. What is a demonstration? The word has slid a long way down the spectrum since it was associated with Euclid and signified the logical proof of a clear-cut proposition. In this age of propaganda it means little more than a showing-off, an advertisement of opinion, a crowd-gesture. Obviously no multitudes in any country of the world need demonstrate, in the old sense, the superiority of law to war; five years' history has written Q. E. D. to that proposition. They can only demonstrate in the new sense: they can display a widespread, perhaps an increasing conviction that war is futile. Unfortunately that conviction, so long as it remains a matter of crowd-emotion, is not enough. The forces making for war are too real, too concrete, too well intrenched in equally powerful emotions. The National Council for Prevention of War is circulating, as part of its demonstration publicity, a list of more than 35 American organizations which in various ways are opposing war. It is almost a demonstration of disunity. Within these groups there is no agreement on a definite political policy; outside them liberals are hopelessly divided. We can agree on an emotional propaganda—but what is the next step in the realm of hard, cold political fact?

A QUIET, genial man, who fought for many years against the handicap of his own ill-health, Dr. Hermann M. Biggs crowded into his forty years of service to the cause of public health an enormous amount of pioneer achievement which has distinctively colored the progress of health administration throughout the country. During his term as general medical officer of the New York City Department of Health it fell to his lot to direct the first municipal bacteriological laboratory in the world, and thus to demonstrate how a city could bring into teamwork the most delicate resources of the scientist and the force of municipal authority to protect the public against epidemic disease. To have introduced diphtheria antitoxin into use, to have suggested the compulsory notification of tuberculosis, or to have developed the mechanism for dealing with tuberculosis as a city problem, would have lent distinction to any public health career. In the nine years of his service as state health commissioner, the state of New York, so often harassed by narrow and inadequate conceptions of public service on the part of state officials, has been with good reason proud of Dr. Biggs' leadership.

CLEVELAND continues to write cooperative history. For several months a committee representing nearly a hundred Presbyterian and Congregationalist churches in the Cleveland area has been meeting weekly to formulate a plan of organic union. It has now reached a unanimous decision on all the delicate questions involved and is ready to propose a plan for the approval of the national bodies of the two denominations. No attempt is made to write or rewrite a national creed. The intricate problems of endowments, bequests and properties seem to be on the way to adjustment through the creation of benevolent holding corporations which will protect the will of the donors and still free the funds for the largest service. Wherever there are competing Congregational and Presbyterian churches, proper sanction is to be secured for merging them, and all duplication at home or abroad is to be eliminated. Already the church boards, extension agencies and missionary bodies of the two denominations, operating in the Cleveland district, have begun to make decisions in joint meeting and to collaborate in their execution. The First Reformed Church, Cleveland area, has now requested the committee to begin negotiations looking to its union with the Presbyterians and Congregationalists. If all these negotiations are successful Cleveland will eventually duplicate the condition which exists in South India and South Fukien, China, where these three religious bodies have already formed a United Church.

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More Light on Tuberculosis

ON ANOTHER page Dr. Raymond Pearl, in his challenging reply to Dr. Louis I. Dublin, pleads for "more (and ever more) accurate and precise knowledge on which to base ever more, and particularly more effective, public health work." Since he takes the field of tuberculosis prevention as his text, it is particularly interesting to learn that the presidential address at the nineteenth annual meeting of the National Tuberculosis Association, held recently on the shores of the Pacific at Santa Barbara, stressed the necessity of organized endowed research in some metropolis and under the auspices of a mature and representative university. Dr. Lawrason Brown, the president, pleads for the abandonment of easy satisfaction in routine activity. The three essentials in progress, he said, are still the development of more widespread and greater skill in handling patients, the development and use of new methods of earlier diagnosis and more thorough care, and the perfecting of organization for collecting and distributing facts.

But there were evidences too of striking progress based on existing knowledge. Dr. Dublin demonstrated that the deaths from tuberculosis among incipient and early cases cared for in sanatoria were far less numerous than those among the same age groups in the population as a whole. During the past ten years, he said, more than 600,000 patients had been treated in tuberculosis sanatoria, and in a measurable proportion—possibly 15 per cent—this group of institutions had been largely responsible for the very large number of lives saved during this period.

Yet the new director, Dr. Linsley R. Williams, had to report that in spite of all the work and money spent in developing interest in the construction of hospitals and sanatoria for the tuberculous only 53 per cent of the desirable total of beds, the country over, has yet been provided. While Colorado, New Mexico and Minnesota have more than the indicated requirement of beds—and are using all they have—Nevada, Idaho and Wyoming have as yet no beds at all. Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Michigan and New York have approximated their needs and are reaping the reward.

We are apparently becoming freed of tuberculosis—and not through universal infection. We have evidently made an invaluable investment in sanatorium services, which are to all intents post-graduate schools of personal hygiene for those who would otherwise be, for themselves and their fellows, serious hazards.

Meiklejohn the Teacher

DR. ALEXANDER MEIKLEJOHN'S resignation as president of Amherst, under pressure of the majority of the alumni, two-thirds of the faculty and ultimately the entire board of trustees repeats the old struggle between an ancient institution with many hoary traditions and new ideas with impetuous leaders to voice them.

Whatever temperamental or administrative mistakes President Meiklejohn may have made they are overwhelmed by the contribution of new life and a new spirit he inspired. The case is not unlike that of President Wilson at Washington, if not Versailles. Dr. Meiklejohn is also a Scotsman with a pronounced chin, a clear head, a vein of poetry and prophecy, some genius for making enemies, and possibly too great impetuousness in taking chances where human nature is involved. But he is a great teacher: he sets young men's minds to working, questioning, doubting, facing the world honestly and frankly, thinking upon subjects comfortably closed and comfortably settled by the old, graduates; and once they find out what he has done for them they come to love him with a great love.

Thus it was that a dozen of the senior class refused to take their diplomas. Whether their judgment was right or wrong is another matter, but to have reached the point where they thought for themselves on the greatest issue of the campus, and were willing to stand by their conviction to the utmost, is in itself something of an educational achievement. There was the local Amherst boy whose widowed mother had struggled for years to help him through college. And the town opinion was against the lad for refusing his degree. It took courage to stand up against it. More understanding was the liberal Southern manufacturer whose son was a leader of the class and who took the ground that he would stand back of him when the boy had fought the thing through in his own mind. And he did.

There was the graduate of 1918 who, born in a very orthodox community, had been much unsettled by Meiklejohn's leadership in his senior days, but who had found himself and who now returned, five years out of college, to fight for the teacher who had put him through. His case has a bearing on the whole educational issue involved. It is good to see that issue brought out into the light and youth take its stand.

If We Must Live in Cities

THERE are people who like to see black smoke belching forth from a thousand chimneys, evidence of industrial activity though it may mean dirt and squalor for all the people. In the same way, the blare and clang of the streets, the boom of passing street cars, the blast of sirens, the roar of traffic are music to the unimaginative citizen who needs the fracas of uncontrolled noise as audible evidence of prosperity. But quite apart from the fact that much of this din implies friction and waste of energy, it destroys values in the life of the community and creates none. Consciously or unconsciously even the person who prides himself on being a cosmopolitan and looks with loathing upon the peaceful quiet of countryside and small town is injured by the persistent noise of the city. His temper suffers, and with it the temper of all the citizens; and the result is a constant element of irritation and lack of courtesy in their mutual relations.

So far public measures to reduce the noise nuisance have not gone nearly as far as the measures to reduce the smoke nuisance. Stringent legislation is lacking, and there are no "noise inspectors" to report and bring about the conviction of offenders. A step in the right direction was taken by Police Commissioner Enright of New York when he called for stricter enforcement of a general order concerning the prevention of unnecessary noise. He said:

> We are receiving many complaints of unnecessary noise during the day and night in many parts of the city caused by unnecessary blowing of horns or whistles, or cutouts open on automobiles, flat wheels on trolley cars, and noisy, dilapidated vehicles travelling through the streets of the city. . . . The volume of noise in this city is very great and nerve-racking at best, and for the reasonable comfort of the people every effort should be made to reduce it to a minimum.

Another matter in which Commissioner Enright has lately set a praiseworthy example to other chiefs of police is his energetic procedure against vandalism in the

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public parks. This campaign is directed along two lines: against indecorous behavior of park visitors and against injury to the natural features and properties in parks. The commissioner has increased the force of policemen on duty in parks and made them give a summons to appear in court next day to any person found to litter the walks and grass with papers or abandoned lunch boxes. On the first day after this order was given, 119 violators were dealt with in one police court alone and 112 of them fined one dollar each for violating police ordinances. Much larger were the penalties inflicted upon persons found, in a round-up of the smaller parks down town, to be drunk or disorderly or both; seventy-seven arrests were made in one day and many of those convicted committed to the workhouse for sixty days.

The destruction of plant life is, perhaps, in part inevitable when thousands of recent immigrants and children of immigrants, as yet unaware of the implications of living in a great city, find themselves in the enjoyment of some small city park as the nearest approach to nature. But there is, as a matter of fact, as much or more destruction in the larger suburban parks visited by citizens of all walks of life. Indeed, the protection of our parks requires not only punitive but definitely educational methods; in the application of which all good citizens should help instead of leaving the job to the occasional policeman.

Freedom with a String

THE LONG EXPECTED action by the President on behalf of the war-time political offenders has come. It does not come in generous form, because it is conditional. Nor is it complete, for there still remain twenty-three prisoners in confinement. The release of twenty-eight men, however, has been authorized, and the President's action, as far as it goes, should receive widespread approval. Of those whose sentences are commuted all but one are members of the I. W. W.; they comprise all the remaining prisoners convicted in the great Chicago trial, and all but one of those convicted at Wichita. Of the Sacramento defendants only two are released and these are aliens, whose release is conditional upon their immediate deportation.

Indeed all the commutations of sentence are conditional —not upon deportation, to be sure, but upon good behavior. If the men are not "law-abiding and loyal to the government," or if they "encourage, advocate or become wilfully connected with lawlessness in any form," their commutations will be cancelled and they will be returned to prison.

At first blush the requirement that these men remain law-abiding does not seem onerous. That is what is expected of all of us, and if we fail, the loss of our freedom is the penalty. But between our situation and the situation of these men there is this vital difference. If we are charged with law-breaking the question is determined by due process of law after a trial by court and jury. With these others the matter is altogether different. If the Department of Justice believes in future that one of them has not been loyal to the government or has done something which is not law-abiding, there need be no court or jury. Indeed there need be no hearing of any sort at which the accused may present his side of the matter. The department merely has to recommend to the President that the commutation be revoked, and if the President concur—and in such matters he must almost of necessity take the advice of his subordinates—the unlucky man goes back to jail. For the rest of their lives these men will hold their freedom under the constant threat of its loss if they fail to live up, not to the standards of judicially declared law, but to the standards of what the officials of an administrative department think the law is or ought to be. Whether the men will accept their freedom on these conditions we do not know. For our part we hope they will. But if they do not, let no one say that their refusal is merely another proof of their evil dispositions. The alternatives presented to them are very real, and no one who is not in their position can say dogmatically which one of them can be chosen more consistently with self-respect.

The official statement which accompanied the President's action drew a distinction between the I. W. W.'s convicted at Sacramento and the other political prisoners. The Sacramento defendants, it was said, were not convicted for mere expressions of opinion, but for acts of property destruction and for inciting others to acts of violence. With this view Senator Pepper of Pennsylvania disagrees. He has made an exhaustive study of the records of all the I. W. W. cases and has recommended to the President that all of the prisoners, including the Sacramento group, be pardoned. He agrees that there is a technical difference between the situation of the cases, due to the fact that the evidence in the Sacramento case could not be reviewed by the Appellate Courts, but he insists that there is no moral distinction and that all should be treated alike. In such technical matters lay opinion is perhaps out of place, but we cannot help recalling that not long ago, the Department of Justice said about all the I. W. W. prisoners what it now says about the Sacramento group. Senator Pepper's report should move the President to have the matter sifted to the bottom and to rectify any mistakes which have been made by the pardoning machinery in the Attorney General's office. To do less than that will be to do less than justice demands.

The Way of Progress

"THE STORY of how Pittsburgh returned to the jungle may or may not have a moral," writes Haniel Long in a recent issue of The Nation, "but it is a curious example of the effect of legislation on a modern city."

One spring a millionaire nurseryman, lobbying for his private gain, and in league with a manufacturer of window-boxes, was clever enough to attach to a popular piece of legislation a rider which had nothing to do with the measure in question and which favored abundantly his own business. This rider made it compulsory for every Pittsburgher who owned or rented a window to have a window-box, to have a window-box indeed for every window. In the confusion which prevails at the close of a tiresome session, the state legislature passed the bill without noticing the rider, and in due course it became a law.

From this point on Mr. Long, with the plausibility of a Defoe and the gay nonchalance of a Munchausen, tells of the triumph of the window boxes, of bitter-sweet, honeysuckle, climbing hydrangea, and grape vines crawling along the surfaces of white tile and red brick, of little bird-boxes for purple martins put up by the traffic policeman on his Stop and Go signal, of skycrapers given over unreservedly to horticulture, of Pittsburgh becoming a smell instead of a smoke to the traveler from afar, of the subsidence of steel and the rise of a new by-product industry based on botany. And then—

As to the millionaire nurseryman who was the unwitting cause of so complete a transformation, his was a singular fate. The unforgiving corporations pursued him relentlessly; and though they found themselves powerless to check the movement he had started, they had their revenge—they convicted

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him of bribery and corrupt practices. Rather than go to prison he committed suicide, clasping to his bosom a bouquet of white roses. The passing of years changed him into a symbolic figure, a martyr and a saint. The visitor to Pittsburgh marvels at the beautiful memorial to his memory down at the Point, where the two sky-blue rivers mingle under his unseeing marble eyes to make the Ohio, that river which, as the poets of Louisiana say, flows south to them from a city of unfading flowers.

The whimsical thing is that, while this fragrant fate has not overtaken Pittsburgh, an important sanitary reform was ushered in that city at one time by a very similar process. There were state laws and state ordinances, but neither of much avail. The Commissioner of Health spoke in the churches and threw pictures on the screen at a meeting of the Chamber of Commerce showing how the marsh hen keeps its nest clean and then by way of contrast, the batteries of neglected privie vaults which still infested downtown Pittsburgh. All to no avail. The Public continued lethargic, the landlords inert. But there were at least two groups that listened and grasped the fact that sales might follow a strict enforcement of the sanitary codes. These were the master plumbers and the manufacturers of sanitary apparatus. These got busy where argument and civic pride had failed, presented an aggressive gospel for reform that overcame the resistance of the property owners; and told it in the convincing leaguage not of flowers nor of birds, but of a brisk trade in toilets.

So the plumbers were the precursors of Mr. Long's nurserymen.

Let Not Thy Right Hand—

THE RECENT decisions of the Interstate Commerce Commission, taken with the action of the Department of the Interior, give an illuminating example of how two straight and narrow paths can make a ruinously crooked way.

For years the Department of the Interior had been trying to preserve the mineral wealth in the public lands for the use of the people by granting leases to mine coal, instead of actual title to the coal lands. This has been uphill work because of the tradition that whatever belongs to Uncle Sam goes to whoever gets there first. Therefore the department congratulated itself when it announced on June 22 that during 1922 a total of 101 mines produced coal on leased public lands, and that 78 new leases of coal-mining operations had been granted. Says the report:

> In the past, because of the prior development of mines and industries in the eastern States, coal mining on the western Public Domain has been overshadowed by private industry. In the years ahead the leased lands may well become the more important. Every effort is accordingly being made by the Interior Department to establish the new system on a correct basis, to protect the public interest in safe and efficient mining, and not unduly to hamper initiative in operation.

But then comes the decision of the Interstate Commerce Commission on June 25, denying the Virginia Railway's application to build a new spur of coal road to a new mine and saying:

> There are at present more mines in the country than is consistent with the most efficient use of carriers equipment and their aggregate capacity exceeds greatly the country's demands.

Its findings are an argument for the theory that a reduction rather than an increase in the number of mines would make for a more efficient service and reduced costs of fuel to consumers, and they are exactly in line with the recommendations of the labor unions and the engineers, who believe that this would lessen part time employment in the coal fields and stabilize the industry.

But these almost simultaneous, opposing actions of two of the many hands of the government have a confusing effect on the innocent observer. If the industrial situation is to be helped by eliminating the waste of careless production from many mines in favor of the scientific exploitation of a few, why, in the name of sanity, open more mines on the public lands!

Comes to mind our old friend the centepede who had so many uncontrollable feet that he

> Lay bewildered in the ditch
> Considering which came after which
> Uncertain how to run.

A Raid Repulsed?

MRS. MAE E. STANNARD was appointed on May 1, 1922, to be superintendent of the Ohio State Industrial School for Girls, at Delaware. The school sorely needed modern methods; Mrs. Stannard came with the cordial endorsement of Mrs. Martha P. Falconer and other national leaders.

She proceeded to abolish corporal punishment, to improve the academic work, to introduce the honor system and to provide recreation. Mrs. Beatrice Plumb Hunzicker (see The Survey, February 15, 1923, p. 628) came with Mrs. Stannard as recreation director. Cooperative relations with the Bureau of Juvenile Research resulted in the classification of the girls at the school. A number of feeble-minded girls were removed to the institution for the feeble-minded at Columbus, and other transfers of girls obviously out of place at Delaware were made, with proper authorization. According to Professor Bruce L. Melvin of Ohio Wesleyan University, a neighbor of the school at Delaware, "a morale that was vigorous, energetic and wholesome dominated the institution." In all these progressive measures Mrs. Stannard had the hearty support of the women's clubs and the League of Women Voters.

A new governor took office in Ohio in January. He appointed a new director of public welfare and an assistant director, John McNamara, who with his wife had been in charge at Delaware in the days when there was no play and plenty of whipping there. On June 5, without warning, the director removed Mrs. Stannard from office, charging her with incompetence, extravagance, and brutal and inhuman treatment of the inmates. Twenty minutes after the letter of dismissal was delivered, McNamara was at the school and Mrs. Stannard, with Mrs. Hunzicker, was hustled off to Columbus, quite without opportunity to answer the charges or offer a defense.

Mrs. Stannard promptly appealed to the Ohio Civil Service Commission. The state League of Women Voters and the Federation of Women's Clubs joined in retaining two prominent attorneys to defend her, and united with Ohio social agencies in demanding for Mrs. Stannard a fair and impartial hearing.

On June 22 the Civil Service Commission ruled that insufficient time had elapsed between the filing of charges and Mrs. Stannard's dismissal, and ordered her reinstated. The attorney-general, finding the evidence insufficient, declined to prosecute the charges for the Department of Public Welfare. The hearing, scheduled for the 25th, has been postponed. If Mrs. Stannard is reinstated, similar attacks on other progressive institutional officers—which seem to be in preparation—may also be repulsed. Ohio may yet succeed in fighting off the raiders.

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The Self-Conscious Community

A Study of National-Local Relationships in Social Work

IF YOU THROW a stone into a pool there will be first a splash, and second, a series of ripples radiating from the center of disturbance. Theoretically the life history of a national movement for social betterment might be just as simple as that. There is, in fact, little difficulty in creating the splash, but it is only by the exercise of the most ingenious and painstaking effort that any movement can be made to move at all—much less ripple smoothly—through the consciousness and activities of the national public. Moreover the public very soon demonstrates that it has no intention of playing a merely passive role, and is quite capable of determining for itself whether or not, in a given case, it wishes to be moved.

During the past twenty years the stones have multiplied into a barrage; the ripples have become fearfully tangled up; and the public has in many cases come to be as conscious of the friction as of the results of these many movements. In particular the cities which are large enough to provide attractive targets have become increasingly sensitive. The relationships between the community and the national agency have become a problem. They have been furiously discussed. Field and headquarters have become conscious of their separate identity to an extent which has sometimes made them forget their interdependence. People have talked as though the relations between them must be diplomatic instead of organic. The solidarity of social effort has been largely obscured.

It is refreshing, therefore, to find the essential wholeness of the social work process stressed so completely in the "report of a study of the interrelation of the work of national social agencies in fourteen American communities," just issued by the National Information Bureau. This study, the work of Porter R. Lee, Walter W. Pettit and Jane Hoey, was initiated by a conference of national social agencies, called at their request by the National Information Bureau, in Washington in April, 1921. This in turn was the sequel of an earlier meeting in which the National Conference of Social Work (through its committee on coordination) and the bureau each had a hand (see The Survey, October 9, 1920, p. 55).

Not content with these various sanctions, the staff of the study has handled its assignment in such close cooperation with the agencies concerned that the result might almost be called the joint report of their self-examination. It is wholly a piece of friendly diagnosis, as dispassionate and objective as a physical examination. The staff has refrained from prognosis, and has all but denied itself the privilege of generalization. The report emphasizes at every turn the fact that it deals merely with fourteen communities and with such national agencies as happen to be found there, and that its conclusions are correspondingly limited. This is not the time or the place to attempt to evaluate the findings, which will be presented to the reconvened conference in the fall. Nor can the material in 157 pages be given more than a brief summary here.

The communities studied (selected from a long list to which all the conferring agencies contributed their suggestions) are these:

Atlanta, Ga.	Plainfield, N. J.
Bridgeport, Conn.	Rochester, N. Y.
Burlington County, N. J.	St. Louis, Mo.
Cleveland, O.	Seattle, Wash.
Grand Rapids, Mich.	Sioux Falls, S. D.
Memphis, Tenn.	Springfield, Mass.
Minneapolis, Minn.	Wilson County, N. C.

In these fourteen communities forty-six national agencies were found to be represented. At the very threshold of the inquiry two facts stand out prominently. One is that the national agencies are, broadly speaking, a new factor in social work. Of the 46, only 12 were in existence before 1900. Twenty-one arose between 1900 and 1917; 13 in the war and post-war years, 1917-22. Their birth-rate has been increasing. But it may be significant that of the 13 organized in 1917 or later, one, Community Service, Inc., has already been reabsorbed into its parent organization, the Playground and Recreation Association of America; and another, the American Child Health Association, represents the union of two older independent agencies.

In spite of the youth of many of these national agencies, they have established contacts over a wide area; their work is by no means confined to the eastern seaboard and the lake states, as has sometimes been supposed. Within the limits of this study the city with the largest number of national agencies represented was St. Louis, with 33; Seattle had as many as Rochester, 24; and Sioux Falls with 14 was not far behind Plainfield with 16, though the latter is fairly under the shadow of New York headquarters. On the other hand the belief commonly held that the organization impulse has come primarily from national headquarters would seem to be justified by the fact that of these 46 agencies 31 appeared first as national movements which planted local units, while only 14 were established on the initiative of local groups which had come together spontaneously.

How the Community Thinks

The question of origin, however, is overshadowed by present problems on which historical classifications shed little light. First of all is the tendency, just beginning to emerge, for the community in its own thinking to lump all national agencies together. The rapid increase in the number of organizations which come to the community, one after the other, with similar appeals is of course a factor in this process: habits of hospitality or inhospitality are soon formed. Where there are community chests, the claims of all national agencies as a group tend to be weighed against the claims of all local organizations. The picked men and women of a town are naturally sought after by many societies; they serve on several boards and come to think in terms of more than one cause at a time. In Cleveland 21 per cent of the board members serve more than one agency, and one person sits on no less than twelve boards.

The content of this community opinion about all national agencies varies greatly, depending largely on recent experi-

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ence. A successful piece of community service by a single organization—more especially if it has a disinterested flavor, such as an impartial survey of local needs—advances the cause of all national agencies. A single tactless field worker, a dilatory correspondent at headquarters, or a surveyor who seems incapable of looking beyond the interests of his own organization, may hurt the cause of all. The moral is plain enough:

> The development of this tendency [toward a general community attitude] is a strong reason why national organizations should consider their common stake in local communities. If they tend to stand or fall together with respect to their influence upon local communities, they may profitably consider together ways and means of making all local contacts effective. . . . Certainly this consciousness in the local community is proceeding much more rapidly than any similar consciousness of their common stake in local communities on the part of the national organizations themselves.

Outcroppings

1. *National organizations are recognized in local communities as necessary and useful. They are responsible for a substantial part of the success of social work in this country.*

2. *The visits of the personnel of the national, state and territorial organizations are probably the most important single factor in determining the vitality of the national-local relationship.*

3. *The administrative problems of different national organizations in their relationship to local agencies are more alike than unlike.*

4. *There is a feeling in some local communities that there are too many national organizations and that too many national headquarters are located in New York City.*

5. *The field of social work has been developed faster than the supply of competent workers. Many of the difficulties both national and local discovered in this study are traceable to the dearth of competent personnel.*

6. *There has been a tendency on the part of national organizations to limit local activities to their own programs without taking into account their general community relationships.*

7. *There is a widespread feeling in some local communities that the chief interest of national organizations in the local community is the raising of money for the national budget.*

8. *There is a feeling on the part of many local workers that some national organizations do not provide for sufficient participation by local agencies in the affairs of the national organization.*

9. *Among local agencies coordination of program and work is proceeding more rapidly than is true of the national organizations.*

10. *In some of the larger communities national organizations are handicapped in rendering needed service, which they are equipped and willing to render, by an attitude of local self-sufficiency.*

11. *The interests and activities of the national organizations are becoming so interrelated in the thinking of the local community that the prestige and influence of all of them are affected by the work and standing of each one.*

In theory, an organization is the embodiment of a plan for social change; in practice, it is a group of people, on whose leadership qualities the community's attitude toward all national social work may hinge. The quality of an agency's personnel is the cornerstone of its success. But whether for staff workers or for local boards of directors, little has been done collectively or consistently to secure new personnel; not enough has been done to train it; and the problem of turnover has not been squarely faced. Trained workers are too few; yet executive ability is far more common than breadth of vision. After consulting several hundred local workers, the staff of the study was forced to the conclusion that "collectively their equipment for the task of community leadership is inadequate," and this without at all disparaging their technical proficiency. In a typical instance the local executives appeared to test the community "only by its willingness to support the work in which they are individually interested." The workers "have too little perspective on overlapping of programs of various agencies, they have given too little thought to uncovered fields, and only occasionally are they beginning to think of their responsibility to the whole community."

Budgets and Quotas

National-local relationships reach their most critical phase in the problem of local support for national budgets. Here the investigators attempt to do no more than sketch the chaotic condition in which the national agencies find themselves and to urge a more comprehensive study of this topic. Methods of securing local support vary widely: there is "little indication of intelligent planning on the part of nationals" in arranging them. On the other hand, though they "have developed no policy among themselves regarding financial relations to communities," the agencies "find themselves facing the development of a policy on the part of the communities from which their support comes"—particularly in the cities which have central financing. These cities, moreover, are rapidly growing in number: when the fourteen communities were picked for the study eight had chests or federations; since then three more communities have adopted this plan.

The local attitude often rests upon very imperfect knowledge of the situation: it is hardly to be wondered at that national agencies which, as the report indicates, have not always succeeded in persuading their own local representatives of the value of the services they offer, should find difficulty in commending themselves to community chest officers, to whom in such cases they must appear merely as suppliants for funds. The response of the chests varies all the way from arbitrary and inconsistent limitations on independent solicitation by the agencies in question to the relatively thoughtful and generous basis on which the Cleveland Community Fund accepts responsibility for national agency support. In any case "the national or field executive approaches the local situation at a disadvantage," for, as the report points out:

> He has given little attention to the national problem outside his own field. The local people are already thinking in broader terms. They have been forced to look at social agencies as a group. This is particularly true of chest cities, and in these cities national organizations have an opportunity and a duty to make clear to local people the kinds of service they furnish their locals.

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On to Sioux Falls!

Sioux Falls, S. D., has a population of about 25,000. Before the war no national agency had made intensive contact with it. But beginning with 1917 the following agencies entered the community:

1917- 1. *American Red Cross organized chapter*
2. *Salvation Army organized family welfare and religious work*

1919- 3. *Y. M. C. A. began campaign for $450,000 building*

1920- 4. *American Association for Organizing Family Social Work, on invitation, made survey and established family welfare society*
5. *National Association for the Advancement of Colored People organized a branch*
6. *Child Welfare League of America admitted South Dakota Children's Home Society to membership*

1921- 7. *Y. W. C. A. established local unit*
8. *National Council of Catholic Women appointed representative to organize unit*
9. *National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations received one of local parent-teacher associations on affiliated membership*

1922-10. *National Tuberculosis Association sent representative to aid in consolidating four groups selling Christmas seals*
11. *American Society for the Control of Cancer organized committee of physicians*
12. *National Committee on Visiting Teachers financed a visiting teacher for city*

Ten units of national organizations were formed in five years. In 1922 a county nurse employed for two years by a group interested in tuberculosis work was released for lack of funds. There was strong sentiment in favor of discontinuing the work of the County Demonstration Agent. The Y. M. C. A. had to float a bond issue to complete its building and had no money for equipment. The Y. W. C. A. was having a difficult time since there was another organization in the same field: the Woman's Alliance, which had for twelve years maintained a boarding home for girls and organized educational and recreational classes. Although eighteen national agencies were in touch with the community (including six which had made slight contacts before the war) the important field of health had gone practically undeveloped. In the present situation there are enough uncertainties and incongruities to suggest that the program of cultivation might more profitably have been cooperative instead of individualistic.

Services Rendered

What are these services? Space is lacking here to do more than enumerate those most commonly found. Field representatives interpret programs and stimulate enthusiasm by speechmaking; assist in community surveys; undertake special studies; occasionally (but too infrequently) furnish expert advice on building or campaign projects; conduct regional conferences; advise in local difficulties. Headquarters in some cases maintain supply services, sometimes furnishing standard forms and printed matter. Some agencies maintain special staffs for information service, answering queries which involve research, compiling legislative or statistical material, suggesting book-lists, and the like. Nearly all attempt, through educational publicity, to keep workers informed about experiments and new developments throughout the field of the agency's work.

These services are widely appreciated, though certain defects in their operation are frequently recognized. The greatest difficulty is that there are far too few field workers: thirty-eight out of the forty-six agencies have an average of only two apiece. Even within these narrow limits there is too much turnover. One agency had four field representatives in a single territory in the space of two years. Many fail to convince local workers of their grasp on fundamental problems. In spite of notable successes in some fields, "the members of the staff feel that in many instances in the fourteen communities studied the close relationship between local organizations and national organizations is in spite of the field representatives rather than because of them." In particular there is need for greater knowledge on the part of field agents of the work of other national agencies than their own. Without this, they are at a disadvantage when they are called upon, as is frequently the case, for advice regarding inter-agency relationships.

Common Council Needed

"Local communities have learned that there must be relationships between local agencies." The experience of Sioux Falls, cited in the accompanying box, is an illustration of the fact that there is need for relationship between national agencies—before as well as after they establish local contacts. There are many local problems which cannot be handled successfully by the single national agency most directly concerned. Take the matter of placing-out service:

> In one of the cities studied there are thirty-two child-caring institutions, each of which does its own child-placing when it decides that any is needed. In addition, there are three separately organized child-placing agencies. Two of these latter agencies are affiliated with the same national organization, but they do not cooperate locally to any extent, in spite of the policy of the national organization. Moreover, most of the children's institutions have not adopted modern methods of child placing. Here is a situation which requires a considerable development if the children's agencies are to serve effectively the other organizations of the community. . . . To improve the work of these children's agencies should be the concern and requires the combined influence of all national organizations in the casework field.

Mental hygiene offers a similar problem. Though it affects the work of many agencies, adequate facilities for diagnosis and treatment are rare, and when they do exist they are usually under the auspices of a single agency and their use is limited. "In local communities the social agencies are to some extent giving joint consideration to this problem, but again the question is raised whether certain nationals should not do so also."

When it comes to the overlapping of national programs, it is again the local community which has taken the lead in recognizing the problem, and sometimes in making experiments to meet it. To quote:

> The national agencies which provide programs for recreational and educational activities for young people furnish an illustration. Theoretically and in the judgment of many local executives . . . the programs of these organizations make their appeal to different groups and there should therefore be no duplication or overlapping of work. Practically as worked out in the communities visited, these agencies usually recruit from exactly the same groups of boys and girls. Even more notice-

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able than this competition for the same groups is the fact that a large part of the field of recreation for young people is left uncovered. . . . Several recreational and educational agencies are concentrating upon the . . . school children from homes distinctly above the poorer class. . . . Judges in juvenile courts, probation officers, workers in child protective agencies, etc., said that there was no local unit of a national agency to whom they could refer the children who came to their attention. Other social workers stated that the children who were leaving school at an early age and going into industry were not being reached by any national organization in this field.

In the field of public health nursing, the multiplicity of programs is even more noticeable. In two cities where the number was counted, there were nine different sets of nurses from various agencies visiting in family homes. . . . Many of the nurses, especially those with national affiliations, are conscious of the need for some division of the field and are trying to make their own local adjustments. . . . Two supervising nurses interviewed . . . suggested that the national agencies interested in health come together for conference and devise a plan for a real division of the field of public health nursing. They deplored the fact that in so many parts of the United States there are no trained public health nurses and yet in the larger cities the various groups "are tramping on each other's toes" . . .

There are many situations in which local agencies find themselves unable to take steps in the direction of cooperation because no policy of interrelationship has been formulated by the national organizations concerned. One local executive, for example, remarked, "when national organizations cannot get together to work out cooperative policies it is hardly to be expected that locals will do so." We found in several cities the local units of two organizations wishing to work out a form of cooperation which they were unable to effect because the national headquarters of one of them refused to permit it.

Not all the local agencies, of course, are moving toward cooperation. "There is a good deal of feeling in local communities between the representatives of different organizations whose interests seem to compete. This feeling is cordial at one extreme and bitter at the other." But councils of social agencies, functional groups, and informal conferences of various sorts in many cities are contributing to a common understanding of the common problems. Few steps have been taken toward the organization of similar functional groups of national agencies. "Such collective thinking as has been done as to the implication of these common interests of national programs has been done chiefly in the local communities."

There Must Be Solidarity

The success of a national agency depends on "an increasing degree of solidarity" in its constituency. That constituency includes not only the national board of directors and staff, the local boards and staffs, but also the volunteer workers, contributors, and those sections of the public which are, or may become, interested in the purpose of the agency.

A cardinal factor in promoting solidarity is public education. Here the chief reliance of social agencies seems to be printed publicity. "However," the investigators report,

national publicity material secures limited local attention because it is not regarded as well adapted to local needs; and local publicity material tries to emphasize those aspects of work which are most easily understood, although these are not necessarily the most important in the national movement. These two local reactions would seem to stamp the present use of printed material for educational purposes as relatively ineffective in building a national constituency.

Since contacts maintained through membership have been an asset to national and local organizations in promoting solidarity, the disappearance of individual memberships in many community chest cities is a difficult problem. Though there is a greater spread of interest when the chest enlists thousands of new general supporters, many local agencies feel that the loss of a group of specific constituents is so serious that the chests and the national organizations should be thinking seriously of developing some substitute for the old relationships.

Board members, too, must be educated. The chests are proving helpful here, for the men and women who are called upon to present the work of their several agencies convincingly both to the community budget committee and to the wider public reached by the chest campaign often gain knowledge for themselves. In two or three cities visited individual agencies are consciously training men and women for service as directors; one agency even has a man slated for its presidency, and is grooming him through a planned sequence of responsibilities.

In this problem of solidarity the administrative relations between national and local are a critical factor. The degree and manner of control exercised by headquarters over the field varies widely; the spirit of national-local relations is affected by the form of organization, but still more powerfully by the personal equation within the organization. An agency which picks members of its national board from a given city without consulting its local unit, as has been done more than once, or which makes appointments to its field and local staff in an arbitrary way, is gravely threatening its own solidarity.

The Desire for Democracy

On the other hand, local inhospitality to national agencies is often a bar to partnership. This may be due to sectionalism, which turns a deaf ear to the East and particularly to New York, where thirty-two of the forty-six agencies have their headquarters. It may be a sense of local self-sufficiency, often due to sheer ignorance of the services which are offered. This attitude is particularly noticeable in the large cities, where lack of vitality in national-local relationships is an impressive fact. Greater vitality is found, oddly, at both extremes of the scale of national organization—among the agencies with the most highly centralized national administration, and among those which have achieved the greatest degree of democracy.

It is the latter group, however, which have come closest to the heart of the matter. Quoting again:

The most outstanding aspect of the spirit of national-local relationships is the desire formulated with varying degrees of clarity and cogency on the part of local personnel for a more democratic organization of national movements. . . . Local executives believe that a national movement exists only to meet the demands of the local communities. The local organizations, therefore, believe that they have the only valid experience out of which policies, programs and regulations should grow.

Though this feeling is often expressed in purely general terms, and though the difficulty of working out a democratic organization is recognized, it is to be reckoned with everywhere. Some national executives recognize and regret the fact that their agencies are controlled from the top down; as a whole this feeling on the part of local communities has not been fully appreciated by the people at headquarters.

The community is coming of age. At several critical points in the national-local relationship it has already worked its way nearer to an understanding of the problems involved than the national agencies have done. It is beginning to reach out for a larger share of responsibility in shaping that relationship.

G. S.

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Sea Wash

By Lucille Lippitt

Boat special! Sails at eleven o'clock!

JUST as you have ironed almost to the end of a stack of soft collars and you are secretly or audibly entertaining the hope of being able to perch on the edge of a shelf for five blissful minutes, in comes a lot of ragged, uninteresting boat wash and the call, "Boat special!" That means that everything else in the laundry must be laid aside.

The Argo gets many boat contracts. When star liners come into port they send the laundry of all their crew to be done, of course, before the boat sails out at a certain time. From 7 A.M. to 5 P.M. we stand at our mangles, pressers and boards, and grind out endless piles of stained old shirts, greasy collars and torn handkerchiefs. The morning passes quite quickly and at noon I eat with the colored girls at our ironing boards. It's a half hour of bliss and we are grateful for the blocks of wood we use as chairs.

The topic of conversation turns to feet. I have found it a popular subject and one which arouses sympathetic experience on the part of every employe of the Argo.

"Land's sake," Alberta is saying, "I been heah a whole month and my feet ache and swell as much as they did the first week."

Molly Mooney is reassuring, to say the least: "Lord, chile, I done been heah for three years, an' my feet ain't no better off'n when I first come. Sometimes when I goes to bed I gits a feelin' that if I could jest lie with my feet on top o' the footboard all night, I'd be happy."

Miss Jennie, one of the older white women, is asking how Annie Melon is.

"What's the matter with her?" I inquire, impolitely curious.

"She had to quit two weeks ago. Boss came up to hustle us along with a boat order that was due for four o'clock. She got fussed, shut that presser over there down on her fingers, smashed the finger tips and tore three nails off by the roots."

A sickening wave sweeps over me. It is stiflingly hot; the heavy, damp atmosphere, with the stench of steam arising from the clothing going through the first process, carries with it the strong odor of perspiration, and that, together with the semi-partitioned toilets and the calcium chloride, makes the room almost intolerable. The engineer tells me that in summer the temperature in the front of the pressing room where we are working is usually 90, and in the rear of the room nearer the wash-rooms about 100 degrees. It makes me even hotter to think about it, and I mop the perspiration from my neck with my sleeve. If I were working by a glass furnace I couldn't be wetter. As for thirst, I drink at least a gallon and a half of ice water daily, I am sure. The more I drink, the more I sweat, and the more I sweat, the more salt water trickles down my face and on my lips, and the more salt water I taste, the thirstier I become.

Sometimes Miss Jennie asks me to come over on the mangle side to eat lunch with her. She tells me that all finery ironers whether they stay here a week or five years get eight dollars, a fixed wage. Piece-workers on the pressers sometimes get as high as twelve dollars if they work desperately hard. Mark-and-sorters earn from twelve to fifteen dollars, but their job is hard to learn; it is very particular and very disagreeable work, for you must handle every piece of soiled clothing that comes in, searching for previous laundry marks or giving it a new one. The oldest marker at the Argo has been working ten years at the same job and she now makes fifteen dollars. The manglers draw seven dollars a week.

BETWEEN the boat specials we turn out the "family wash." Everybody dives for the dainty articles; that is to say, dainty by comparison, for the families of the Port Street neighborhood aren't blessed with the luxuries of life. The afternoon drags horribly. I have periods of fatigue and spurts of revived energy. At times, especially the last three hours, I long for a stool or even a table to lean against. This morning I sat down for two hours in open defiance of the rules and customs of the Argo. Indeed, the other girls are terror-stricken lest I be caught and lest the stools, which are only for noon-hour use, be taken away from us. But this afternoon I haven't the heart to sit again when I know that not another girl in the laundry dares to do it. And so, when five o'clock finally comes, I crawl back to my room. My output for today is 205 men's handkerchiefs; 183 soft collars; 14 B. V. D.'s; 7 neckties; 3 nightgowns; 1 middy; 2 ladies' dresses; 4 sashes; 21 ladies' handkerchiefs.

The following day I draw my pay envelope for five days' work—$6.67! In other words, I have been working at the rate of fourteen cents per hour, standing from 7 A.M. to 5 P.M. with thirty minutes off for lunch.

Shortly before five o'clock the foreman and his helpers rush in with another boat special. It must be delivered before 11 P.M. and so various girls are asked to stay. Eight women are willing and they are each handed a quarter with which to go to the corner restaurant and buy their supper. They begin the night work at 5:30 and they stop at 9:30. For that overtime they are paid eighty-five cents.

I ask Cora and others why so many are willing to stay when they are not compelled to.

"We can't leave them go until tomorrow," they say, "or we'd be breaking the boat contract."

They take their responsibility in the obligation for granted.

The harbor in Baltimore is crowded close with freight liners and ocean-going ships. Down the bay there lies a boat from Singapore, and one from Norway and one from Argentine. The crowds who pass on the excursion steamers for a trip down to Tolchester Beach or to Annapolis gaze enviously upon these awe-inspiring hulks.

But the carefree excursionist forgets that before those great ships can bid farewell to the harbor, somewhere in a laundry in Baltimore women have worked almost to the point of sheer exhaustion or even long over the legal ten hours of Maryland, that sailors may be clean.

"Boat special! Sails at eleven o'clock," is the call of the sea wash to women in port laundries. And it is hard here to work your imagination into the sense of the romantic.

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INDUSTRY

The Black Folk Are Coming On

WE IN AMERICA are seeing the third phase of a three-hundred year long race migration—that of the Negroes. To chart it is reasonably easy; to determine whether it is desirable may be possible: to frustrate it is difficult: to direct and control it is a gigantic and imperative task. For this migration is as simple and as intricate as any other great mass movement, and its effects on industry are incalculable.

The first stage, which brought the Negroes from Africa, could hardly be called spontaneous. Their quick spreading through the southern states with the extension of agriculture, particularly of cotton growing, was not altogether voluntary either. But their slow difficult dribbling northward into the free states and Canada was obviously intentional and premeditated.

There have been high tides and slack in the race sweep. When the Emancipation Proclamation removed one barrier, there was a quick wave straight through the still struggling armies of the North and South. With the end of the Civil War came another larger wave which, though it did not all tend northward, produced such strong interstate cross currents that by 1880 sixteen per cent of our Negro population—over 1,000,000 people—were living out of the state they had been born in. During the following thirty years the number of these migrants was increased by 240,000 more, 200,000 of whom had come north. For fifty years the black wave moved slowly enough so that the problems created could be met and wrestled with one at a time. Work and homes and schools and churches could be established for the black folks as they came on.

But twenty years ago, a careful, devoted, efficient and prolific mother insect crossed the Rio Grande from Mexico, and the Negroes were caught in the path of one of the most successful race migrations the world has ever known—that of the boll weevil. This indomitable bug was rather ignored at first. What is a beetle three-quarters of an inch long that man should be mindful of her? Besides, do we not have an industrious Department of Agriculture paid to wrestle with insect enemies as the army does with human invaders? Let the Government do it! And so the weevil came on, and before her ravages the blacks began to move in earnest. For the boll weevil is like Attila's horse, and where her hoof has tred, or rather where her eggs have laid, the cotton crop is destroyed.

FROM the influenza germ to the English sparrow, the grapefruit to the Jersey cow, successful forms of life tend perpetually to spread and migrate. Sometimes, as in the case of the sparrow and the "flu," they do it in the teeth of the most strenuous opposition we can put up; again only the most persistent campaigns for pure-bred sires, and California orchards give us enough cream and grape fruit to go around. But whether the migration is voluntary or induced, that form triumphs which is detachable and peripatetic. Successful human races drift before hunger, or adverse climatic changes, or disease, or persecution, like prairie cattle before a storm; and as the herd heads toward the water holes and the new grass, so men follow the hope of gold or work, land and freedom. And whenever they migrate, profound changes—social, economic, political—result.

Now the Negro in the sections where he is thickest is the grower of cotton. He is specialized to that particular job, and the job has been left in the stage where he, without any advance in skill or knowledge, can do it. The white man raises cotton vicariously; it is the black man who is in the fields, and his living conditions, his wages and his education are all equally low. For why, with so many "hands" needing work, should the planter install expensive labor-saving machinery? The plow and the mule to plant, and enough black fingers to pick were all that was necessary. As late as 1917 Negro farm hands were paid from 40 cents to $1.00 a day with the average at about 75 cents. How could the planter pay more when he had to "carry" his farm hands from one cotton crop to the next and see that they had food between seasons? Through about three seasons of boll weevil ravages the planters were able to "carry" their workers. Then the southern banks began to curtail credit on the prospects of a cotton crop which the unsubdueable, uncheckable mother weevil seemed certain to destroy. Farming had to be reorganized behind her with more diversified crops, especially corn, and with live stock instead of cotton as the main dependence.

Now the Negro is not a good general farmer. It is true that he is being trained to modern farming through the public schools, through the large and effective work of the farm demonstration agents, through corn clubs and pig clubs and tomato clubs, through agricultural fairs and contests—true also that there are many many instances where he has made splendidly good during the last ten years. But the fact remains that the great mass of the Negroes have not been trained for general farming and do not like it. They are notoriously unsuccessful at raising corn. As the report of the United States Department of Labor says:

> As a farmer, the Negro has known how to raise only one crop and that under definitely prescribed conditions. . . . The Negroes were fully and profitably employed during the cotton planting and picking seasons, but were without employment during the other months. . . . Diversified farming requires labor in every month of the year. . . . They have never been skilled in stock raising, the growing of grain crops, peanuts and forage crops. They have yet to learn how to prepare the ground for grain crops, how to plant and cultivate them and how to harvest them. Everywhere in the black belt the remark was heard that the Negro renter "likes to plant cotton." He is skeptical of corn, velvet beans, peanuts and hay.

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And even if the Negro had liked diversified farming and had done it well, not over 70 per cent of the cotton farmers would be needed under the new system, so that through the rampant maternal instinct of the weevil, thirty out of every hundred Negro farmers were out of a job. Then, pushed by hunger, they began to move. The foot-loose first. The young men between eighteen and twenty-five wandered away in search of something to do, and since the only unappropriated work was in the towns, they went there, usually as unskilled laborers.

To those who were left to struggle with the problems of the new farming in the lower Mississippi Valley came a further push—the distructive storms and floods of the summer of 1916 which swept away their hope not only of money but of food. Some communities tried to provide employment for them. Work was begun on the public roads, lumber companies at various points attempted to increase their capacity but found that the railroads were not prepared to furnish extra cars so that they could ship their product. Charity was exhausted and the exodus toward the towns began in earnest.

The Advance Guard

And just as the hunger pinch began to be felt, the demand for laborers in the mines and factories which supplied Europe during the war, swelled to insistence. Labor agents from the North went into the southern industrial centers and took at first anybody who could be persuaded to leave, without much care as to whether they would be employable in the North or not. In effect they backed their cars into the towns and took away all who would get aboard. But at the same time that the labor agents were active, the skilled workers in the industrial centers of the South were leaving for the North on their own initiative and paying their own way in pursuit of the high wages of the war-time boom.

What happened around Birmingham, Alabama, seems to be typical of the whole region. According to the Department of Labor the report of the ticket agents show that from the first of April 1916 to the first of May 1917, 12,731 persons left the Birmingham district over a single road, practically all of whom were Negro laborers:

> From the points of destination (the report continues) it will be seen that the great majority were coal miners leaving the Birmingham district for the coal fields of Kentucky, West Virginia, Virginia, and Pennsylvania. This number does not include those who have gone over the three remaining railroads running north from Birmingham. Probably more have gone over one of these roads than over the road from which the above figures are quoted. Likewise it does not include the movement to Detroit, Mich.; Chicago, East St. Louis and other points in Illinois, and points in Ohio, New York and Pennsylvania.

To fill this vacuum left in the Birmingham district, Negroes have come not only from the black belt counties but from all sections of the state. They have also come from Meridian and other points in east Mississippi, as well as from the southwestern part of Georgia and the western side of Florida. From this territory Negroes steadily came into the district to take the places of those leaving, and as they in turn followed their predecessors, others succeeded them. From a single town, Selma, Alabama, in the black belt, which had in 1910 a population of 13,649, between August 1916 and June 1917, 12,037 tickets were purchased to the Birmingham district. Now this means that the "boll weevil" Negroes, as they are called, have left their farms for the nearest town hunting for work! That, not finding it, they have drifted to Selma, the county seat, which being unable to furnish them work, shifted them to the Birmingham district, called the "Southern Pittsburgh," to fill the vacant places of the men of the earlier migration. Here they usually stayed long enough to acquire a little skill either as miners or as industrial workers, and then moved on to the non-union coal fields, the steel works, or the machine shops. This was a typical "boll weevil Negro's progress" under the war demand.

But as the demand for labor increased, the length of the "progress" decreased in proportion. Such trains as those which hurried up from Selma dropped only a few of their passengers at Birmingham, and rushed the whole unskilled lot out of the state. The South, at last alarmed at the sight of its cheap labor supply vanishing away, suppressed the labor agents, but it was too late. Those who had gone before had made good wages, and word went back that there was more work at the same rates. It did not matter that many of them could not read or write; the mysterious "grape vine telegraph" was at work, and the blacks continued to go. There were cases where the alarmed southerners used force to keep them. Negroes caught at the railway stations were arrested, others boarding a train had their tickets snatched away and destroyed. Stories of the hatred of the northerners for the Negroes, the way coffin-makers were working nights to care for the Negroes who died of the awful northern winters, of darkies walking the streets of northern towns begging in vain to be allowed to go back to Dixie —all these were in the air. But the boll weevil continued to push them, and the grape vine telegraph to pull, and the blacks were moving on.

How many came north during this wave of the migration we do not know. The census shows a gain of 44 per cent in the colored population of the North against a 1½ per cent gain in the South for the ten year period ending in 1920. Probably there were between three and four hundred thousand, most of whom came between 1916 and the end of the decade.

With the armistice and the business depression, the migration slackened, but it by no means ceased. The boll weevil kept busy, the tradition of prosperity in the North was established, the way was open, the Negroes continued to move.

And even without the economic incentive, those social causes which had always tended to send the Negro out of the South had a chance now to be effective. Carl Sandburg quotes the secretary of the Chicago Urban League as saying:

> Every time a lynching takes place in a community down south you can depend on it that colored people from that community will arriye in Chicago inside of two weeks. We have seen it happen so often that now whenever we read newspaper dispatches of a public hanging or burning in Texas or a Mississippi town we get ready to extend greetings to people from the immediate vicinity of the scene of lynching.

"Eleven persons joined our church the other Sunday and they were all from Vicksburg, where there had been a lynching a few weeks before," said Dr. L. K. Williams, colored pastor of the largest protestant church in North America.

Perhaps the inadequacy of the Negro schools, the "Jim Crow car," the inability to vote, seem more serious to the educated Negro of the North than to the illiterate Negro from the cotton fields. but it is to be remembered that there are more and more of these educated Negroes every year.

It was during the business depression that the people of the North really woke up to the fact that the blacks are

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Robert Minor in The Liberator

coming on. While the demand for labor was so overwhelming that there was no economic rivalry between the races, they ignored the migration. When it was over, and somebody had to go without work, the white workmen of the North sometimes resented finding themselves among the half-million idle. At the same time came the drive among employers for the open shop, and the steel strike and later the coal strike, and the railway shopmen's strike, and the horrid fact was made evident that though there are some hundreds of Negro locals affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, the Negro is largely ununionized. White labor became panic-stricken at the fact that the black was coming on, and there were race riots in East St. Louis and Chicago and menacing stirrings everywhere.

The Tidal Wave

And then like the hero in a play, Prosperity was upon us again. There was work for everybody. The war boom was nothing to it! The migration swelled to a tidal wave. Not merely the foot-loose men now, nor the skilled workers. Whole families with their bags and bundles hurrying out of the South, not only to the North, but to the newly discovered oil fields of the Southwest, to the romance of California, and the unknown chances of the Northwest. Every cause for migration acted upon them at once—the ever-present push of the advancing boll weevil, the continued low wages, discrimination against them in the courts, at the polls and in the schools, lynchings and Jim Crow cars; and on the other hand such wages as never were before, more of even-handed justice, the same schools the white men have, the ballot—everything! And above all the habit of going North, a thing no longer new and strange but what their friends and neighbors had done and succeeded at! As never before the blacks are coming on!

How fast they are coming we do not know for we are out of the realm of statistics and into that of conjecture. "Opportunity," a Negro publication, gives the following facts in its June issue:

> Migration of more than 5,000 unskilled Negro laborers from North Carolina during May has necessitated the shutting down of more than 50 highway construction projects. . . . The Negro exodus from Tennessee with the opening of spring is taking on serious proportions. . . . It is reported that 552 Negroes passed through Cincinnati in one day. Three hundred Negroes passed through Jackson, Mississippi, in one afternoon en route for Chicago. . . . Fifty Negroes boarded an Illinois Central train at the Poplar Street station in Memphis in one party, and the same train carried three carloads from points south.

A special survey by the Department of Agriculture indicates that 32,000 Negro farm hands have moved north from Georgia, 22,750 from South Carolina, 15,000 from Arkansas and 4,500 from Louisiana during the past year.

The New York Evening Post of June 19 prints a dispatch from Clemeon College to the effect that 50,000 Negroes have left South Carolina since the first of November; that 9,234 one-horse farms have been abandoned, and that 14,722 acres planted to cotton and 4,600 acres planted to corn have been abandoned since the last of March.

Word comes from other places that the migration has the nature of a flight. The Negroes leave between two days, abandoning most of their household goods, their crops, even their livestock.

Walter White, assistant secretary of the National Association for the Advancement of the Colored People, writes to The Survey under the date of June 20:

> With regard to the number of migrants, definite information cannot be secured. Any figures that are given must be estimates. Varying figures have been given, but the closest approach to accuracy indicates that approximately 300,000 Negroes have migrated since January 1, 1923. There is practically no counter migration.

The blacks are coming on!

One seventh of the working people of the country are said to be colored. When they shift about things are bound to rock. Already the economic balance has been upset in both the North and South.

The migrants have left behind them an unadjusted agriculture—lands untilled, crops unharvested, a new kind of farming striving to establish itself without enough laborers to do it. Labor-saving machinery is being brought in.

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Rumor has it that a satisfactory cotton picker is at last invented. The poor white, freed from Negro competition, can have his chance on the land if he wants it, which seems doubtful since he too has found the factory. More than a year ago a movement was set on foot to induce white farmers from the North and West to come south, a continuation of that part of the western migration of the last century which turned south at the Rocky Mountains and started east again in a great whorl. The country is set on downing the ubiquitous weevil even if the planting of cotton must be forbidden for a year. By persuasion or substitution the white land owner must find ways to work his land, for the Negro is free to go and the fancy is on him.

Industrially the North is receiving the Negro gracefully; socially it is not. There is work for him to do, plenty of the Negro quarter is already a powerful political force used blindly. Politicians of other cities say that the Negro vote must be considered. How? In the North there is, practically everywhere, compulsory education. The graded city schools seem dangerously unelastic before the needs of the half-grown illiterate sons and daughters of illiterate parents. What's to be done about them? How about the Negro's relations with organized labor? While he was an agricultural worker this question did not come up. If he had gone to the northern farms instead of to the cities it could have waited a long time for solution, or if he had remained an independent craftsman in a small place, or in any of those occupations listed by the census as "domestic and personal service." But he is crowding into mining and transportation and manufactures—occupations which the trade unions are striving to control. In spite of official pronouncements the unions have never seemed anxious to include him, nor he to be included. Will he join?

A Forecast

In spite of the discomfort due to this migration it is probably a good thing, both for the old agricultural order in the South and for the newer industrial order in the North. If the black man makes good in industry as he seems to be doing, the problem of an increasing output to meet a world demand is solved for a long time. If he weeds himself and his slipshod methods out of the rich lands of the South, there is a chance for scientific farming, machine agriculture, and an increased yield. For the Negro is but a poor farmer while he bids fair to become a pretty good mechanic. It is quite possible that his ultimate place is in the cities while a comparatively infrequent white man with much machinery takes his place in the fields.

And this migration is undoubtedly a great help in the solution of our difficult race problem, which it lifts from a sectional difficulty that may be ignored, to a national question that must be dealt with. In an earlier stage of civilization such migrations as this were left to adjust themselves, and the individual units in the process were fitted into their new places by the abrasive action of suffering, conflict or forcible elimination. But if we really have got anywhere with civilization it ought to be possible for us to pass beyond the old laissez faire stage and effect this necessary social adjustment consciously, humanely and quickly; instead of by the old brutal process of social trial and error. For it is not a question of whether the adjustment to this great race migration shall be made or not. No one has any choice as to that, it must be done. The question is merely whether we shall forehandedly prepare to do it effectively and well, or go through the long suffering of letting it do it, but no place for him to live. The city housing problem, acute everywhere since the war, is aggravated to bitterness where he is concerned. And the blacks are coming on! Politically the North is unprepared for him. He is a potential political power without political experience because in the South he has never been allowed to vote. In Chicago itself.

For driven by the weevil and pulled by opportunity, the blacks are coming on!

MARTHA BENSLEY BRUÈRE

Vacations with Pay

TO the office worker, summer means a vacation of two weeks or so, a chance to get out of the city, to forget the job and be a different person. But to the girl who works in the average factory, it means the same monotonous routine, while the mercury climbs up and over the peak.

If the factory girl gets out of the endless round at all, it is usually by arranging with the foreman to take a week off at her own expense—for the girl earning $10 or $12 a week this probably means staying at home, helping with the cooking and sewing, and occasionally going to the movies.

Until recently the employer justified this discrimination by saying that his office employes were not paid for overtime work while the factory force was. But progressive employers are beginning to realize that vacations are something quite apart from pay, and that to grant paid vacations is not only popular with their employes, but that it decreases labor turnover and makes for efficiency and industrial good will.

For more than thirty years Carter's Ink Company of Cambridge has given a week's paid vacation to all factory workers who have been in their employ a year. But this is exceptional. Only during the past few years, however, the retail stores have begun to give vacations with pay to their sales force. The American Railway Express Company, the Bell Telephone Company and a number of street railway companies have considered it sound practice to grant vacations with pay to all their employes regardless of the nature of their work. In April, 1916, Congress granted a thirty-day vacation with pay to every employe, both shop and office, of the arsenals of the United States Government who had served twelve consecutive months, and this has become the standard vacation for all government employes.

Apparently these vacations are a good thing—how are they managed? On what basis are they granted? What is the best experience for other employers to follow? The Consumers' League of eastern Pennsylvania has been trying to find out. With the cooperation of a Philadelphia manufacturer particularly interested in the vacation question, it sent out questionnaires to manufacturers throughout the country. Returns from one hundred and sixty-three of these manufacturers show that forty-nine of them are granting vacations with pay to their factory employes. There appears little uniformity in the details of vacation provision.

The first firms to introduce paid vacations were primarily interested in reducing either labor turnover, or absences and tardiness. They give for the most part graduated vacations. Almost every firm has its individual scheme. Two concerns give two days paid vacation for each year of service up to six years. Five concerns give one week's vacation for one year's service, and increase the vacation with the years of service. A paper mill for the past four years has granted

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vacations to all workers at the same terms regardless of position. But until a girl has worked there three years she gets no vacation at all. The fourth year she is given three days vacation—for every additional year of service there is another vacation day until she has served six years when the vacation remains a week long. When she has served ten years it jumps to two weeks and there it stays. Even this rather illogical arrangement does tend to reduce labor turnover, for while in 1921 only 35 per cent of the force had been there long enough to get any vacation at all in 1922 this proportion had risen to 43 per cent and it is estimated that nearly 60 per cent will have vacation in 1923.

Another method of reducing labor turnover, one less frequently used, takes the form of a bonus for returning to work after the vacation, rather than a reward for past length of service. The firms using this plan close down for two weeks in the summer. Operators in the employ of the concerns for a minimum of three months who take their vacation during the factory summer shut-down, and who are still on the payroll when it reopens, receive one extra week's pay six days later.

A paper box factory gives one week's vacation with pay to all who have not lost more than eighty hours during the year for reasons other than sickness. A textile mill gives one week's vacation with full pay to employes with perfect attendance for the six months following May 1st, and one week's vacation with 90 per cent pay to employes who have not lost more than six days time in the six months period.

A clothing manufacturer gives one hour's pay for every week of perfect attendance after the first six weeks of employment. Of the five hundred and fifty operatives with a year or more of service in 1921, about two-fifths had a perfect attendance record, and thus earned the maximum bonus. Many others missed only one week's bonus.

The vacation club is not only a scheme of paying for vacations but also a method of stimulating thrift. Indirectly it may serve to decrease turnover—an employe who had contributed for eight months to a vacation club would be likely to complete the year to get the firm's contribution. Although it is a voluntary scheme, 90 per cent of the employes of one firm took part in the following plan:

CLASS	Hourly Wage up to and including	Saved per half month	Saved per year	Company contribution
A	$ .20	$ .50	$11.00	$ 9.00
B	.27½	.75	16.50	12.00
C	.35	1.00	22.00	15.00
D	above .35	1.25	27.50	18.00

But the plan used by the greatest number of firms is the flat-time vacation. Eighteen concerns have this plan in operation. Ten firms give one week's paid vacation for less than one year's service. And three concerns give from ten days to two weeks' paid vacation for one year's service. Five concerns give one week's paid vacation for five year's service. One of these firms is planning to shorten this to three years.

The forty-nine employers who give their factory workers vacations with pay seem to agree that it is sound industrial practice, that it is an investment yielding returns in both health and loyalty, that it need not interfere with the operation of the plant. Simple justice to workers in repetitive operations should entitle them to the vacation period that is granted to office workers, who, for the most part, are engaged in more varied, interesting and often more remunerative tasks.

GRACE PUGH

Apprenticeship in France

BEFORE the war labor was plentiful and qualified labor comparatively cheap in France, so that there was little need of organizing apprenticeship. There were free professional schools in almost every industrial center, but only families with a competence could face the expense of maintaining their children in them. The tendency was to train foremen rather than workmen. Children who wanted to learn a trade had to enter a shop as helpers and pick up their knowledge by looking at the operatives. In a few shops they were better taught; but they had to pay a fee the first year and go without wages the next two years.

The war has changed all that. With regard to the supply of hand labor, France finds herself now practically in the same situation as America and new measures had to be devised. Employers in every line of trade have joined in syndicates in industrial cities with a view to organizing apprenticeship and the various syndicates united in what was called Chambers of Trades, which are now regulated by law. These chambers (like the chambers of commerce) have a right to levy a tax from employers in proportion to the importance of the working force in each plant, and apprentice-schools were started in the plants best equipped for the purpose, expense being met out of the common fund.

In large cities like Lyons, Bordeaux, Limoges, Lille, etc., the apprentice courses are connected with an organization for vocational guidance developed in the public schools. The scheme was first initiated at Bordeaux by M. Mauvezin, an engineer and pedagogue. His graph of a complete list of the trades practised in the region, in the shape of a "rose" (Rose des Métiers), his statistics concerning the local wants of the trades, his conferences with the masters of the public schools, his system of professional examinations, his professional competitions among apprentices, his programs for the courses and arrangement of time of work and time of study, his scale of progressive wages (beginning with a small compensation from the very outset) have served as models for most of the newer chambers of trades. The principles of the institution, the results and the improvements constantly introduced are recorded in the *Bulletin de la Chambre de Métiers de la Gironde,* published monthly (Bordeaux, 57 Rue des Trois Conils).

A typical contract contains the following clauses:

> The child shall receive tuition and training for three years at the apprentice school of the factory (or part time at the professional school of the city). For a period of two months, during which the aptitudes of the child will be tested, it will be possible for either party to give up the contract; after which period breaking the contract shall entail a penalty for either party of 500 francs the first year or 1,000 francs the two following years. . . . The apprentice shall receive a wage for the actual time of work spent in the shop, outside school hours. The wage shall be increased gradually every six months, till, at the end of the third year, it comes near to the regular wage of a full workman (green hand). . . . The renumeration shall be withdrawn if the apprentice, by ill-will or objectionable behavior, fails to improve or to attain the expected results. . . . At the end of the three years, the apprentice shall be given as his own property his outfit of tools.

The system is already working in the most important industrial centers, regulated by law and supervised by the inspectors of labor. Much is expected from it to meet the deficiency of qualified labor especially in the *de luxe* industries, where France has always held a prominent rank

CHARLES CESTRE

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COMMUNITIES

Bide-A-Wee and The Cedars

BETWEEN "Bide-A-Wee" and "The Cedars" lie the promise and the problem of American life. "Bide-A-Wee" is the little two-room shack, one of a hundred or so, huddled among the trees on the river bank or behind the dunes, a quarter-mile beyond the boardwalk. "The Cedars"—so called after trees that once were but have long since given way to an imperative demand for smooth lawns and flower-beds—is on a paved street with cemented side-walks, a block or two from ocean, lake or river front. Bide-A-Wee parks its flivver as best it can under a shade tree or in an old barn. The touring car of The Cedars has a neat garage of its own, gliding to the street on two strips of cement over the well-kept lawn. The people of Bide-A-Wee are dressed all the time in bathing suits and khaki pants—only "Mother" wears a Mother Hubbard. Dinner is in the middle of the day, and the garbage consists for the most part of cans. The Cedars folks wear sporting clothes in day-time and dine at seven in laundered shirts and dresses.

As for a rollicking good time, Bide-A-Wee has it all over The Cedars. Dinner bells are less punctual—and the ice box correspondingly more accessible to the members of the household. Father and the boys potter around and know the joy of creation; for always there is something to "fix." For the smaller children there are few "don'ts," and mother's scolding is not taken seriously. Mother herself lives in a perfect whirlwind of social activity with neighbors on all sides of her, all on the friendliest of terms in an almost ideal democracy of equality and mutual aid. And yet in its heart every Bide-A-Wee family is looking forward to the day when it will own and occupy The Cedars, when it will rock its row of superior basket chairs on a roomy porch and entertain visitors from town in a mahogany-furnished dining room. It is this ambition that distinguishes American life from that of all other countries. Here, within given limits, opportunity still is open for all; and in the democracy of the summer resort, with all its diversity of status, there is no class consciousness. Of course, the tiny wooden summer-shack, which almost no family is too poor to own, is itself a purely American institution; but as a social phenomenon it is not its existence but the dynamic link of ambition which connects it with Ocean Avenue and The Cedars that is most significant.

The Cedars, of course, is not an end—though for those in Bide-A-Wee it is the immediate object of ambition. The envy of the "proletariat"—if there is envy—rarely has for its object the life and homes of the "idle rich"; it is always the next upward step on the social ladder that gives momentum to the industry and thrift of individuals and to the labor movement. The people in The Cedars are people like ourselves in Bide-A-Wee, who through the qualities mentioned or maybe luck or a bit of shady speculation, have hitched themselves up to the next rung.

QUITE otherwise is the case of Red Forge and The Dunes. These houses represent a real split of the social body. Red Forge is the summer home of cultured people—usually a long way from the shore and main roads, a simple, large mansion set among trees on rising ground, with plenty of woodland belonging to it above, and a small farm on the other side of the road. The Dunes is an enlarged and boisterously ornate edition of The Cedars. It is always on the main boulevard, to which it exposes a series of Italian terraces, set with rare shrubs, though the whole ground on which it stands is less than half an acre in extent. In other words, it is the home of the newly rich—usually come to by way of The Cedars—whereas Red Forge may have its origin in an old family farm or, if it does spring from The Cedars, does so with the interval of a generation nurtured in good schools and distinguished social and cultural associations.

And thus we come to the "promise" of which we started out to tell. There is every evidence that, in spite of war fortunes and the rapid rise in prosperity, it is the Red Forges and not The Dunes that today are seeing their most amazing growth. The Cedars more and more realizes that not ostentation but a determined effort to acquire a worth-while art of living leads to the social recognition and the happiness

Woodcut by J. J. Lankes

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it seeks. As yet it is too often a mere desire to be "correct" that influences the choice of home and surroundings by American families that have acquired wealth. But gradually, especially with the increase of college education for both boys and girls, there is coming in more real love for the beauty of nature and simple things. Perhaps this tendency has as yet little influence on the life and aims of those in the Bide-A-Wee stage of evolution; but it is noticeable even there. Most people are naturally averse to vulgar ostentation. The vulgarity of taste that has crept into American domestic life had its origin in the bad example of those of an earlier generation who acquired riches but disdained education for themselves or their children.

"Leading" citizens today can do more for the elevation of American standards of taste by living simply (no matter how expensively) themselves than by endowing movements to diffuse art among the people. Without being conscious of imitation, the average man is apt to take his tastes from those whose judgment he admires in business and public affairs. And who can tell whether in this sphere, which we usually consider a purely individual concern, the moulding of public opinion is not of even greater social importance?

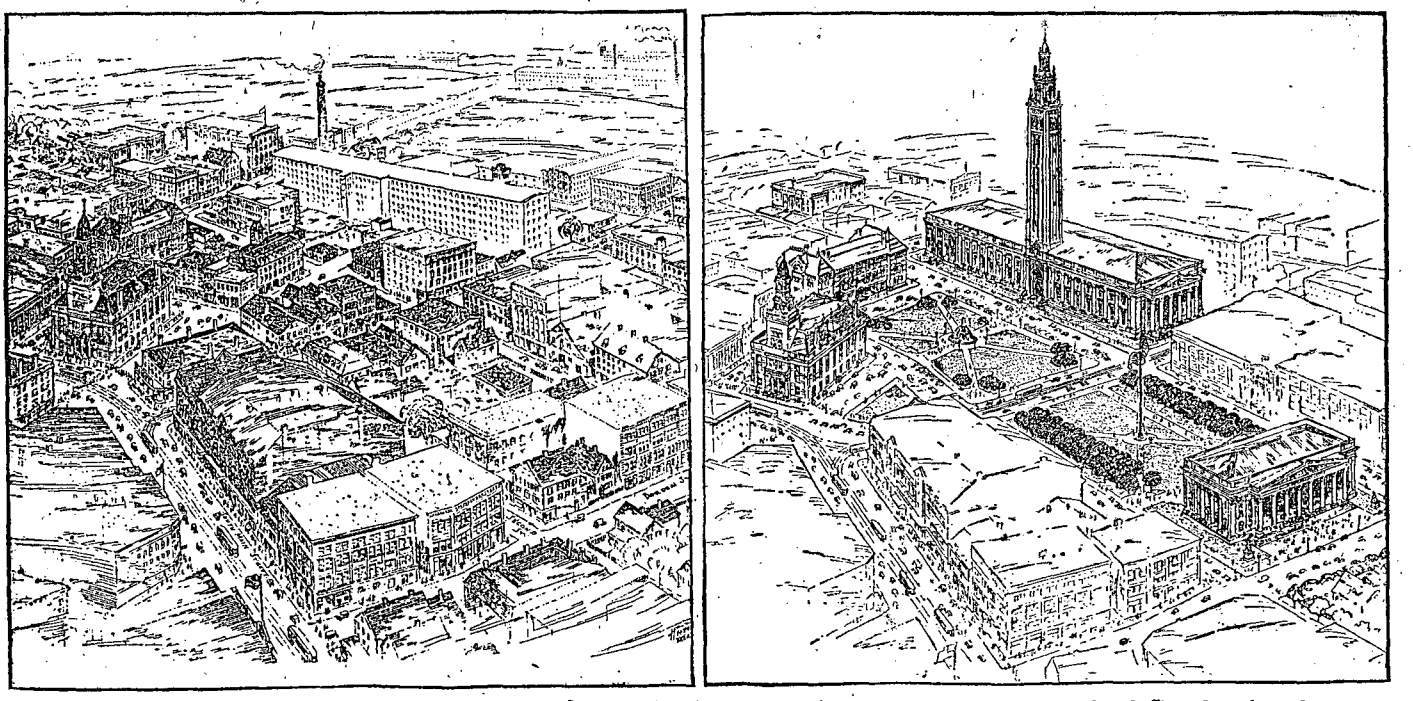
BRUNO LASKER

Controlling City Growth

THE practice and theory of city planning, as developed in recent years, has become one of the most inspiring chapters of American social engineering. From all parts of the country come illustrations of the fact that in this field at any rate art and science, social foresight and sound business sense are cooperating with most happy results. Only a few examples can here be given of recent evidence of that progress.

Providence is proud of its past—and one of the few cities in America that have preserved enough of old landmarks and beautiful buildings to hand on to their children a city picture of historical continuity. But as elsewhere, thoughtless builders and greedy speculators have encroached upon that picture; moreover there was no certainty that the newer parts of the city would have the restful harmony that distinguishes some of the old. So there was much relief and thanksgiving last month when the zoning ordinance prepared by Robert Whitten and examined by hundreds of citizens whose property is affected was adopted by both branches of the city council by a unanimous vote. It is characteristic of the temper of the city and, perhaps, also of the thoroughness of the preparatory stages with which the ordinance was drafted that the discussion was entirely on administrative points and not on restrictions that were embodied in the ordinance.

Chicago, with a much shorter civic history, is even prouder of what it has accomplished in city planning. When Burnham's plan was published, many thought that in a number of its major elements it was necessarily a paper project, that the vast improvements encompassed could not be carried out in a single lifetime or in two or three lifetimes. Today it looks as though many who saw the adoption of that plan are likely to see its full execution—modified, of course, but not reduced in scope. Not yet fifteen years old, the city plan commission, aloof from politics, has nevertheless secured nearly ninety million dollars in appropriations. The lake-drive and lagoon are taking visible shape. Sectional street widenings are giving a glimpse of what the twenty-six miles of diagonal and other new boulevards through the heart of the city will mean in eased traffic and long vistas. Already 25,000 acres of forest land have been preserved for future parks, and the commission hopes to secure 10,000 more shortly. A stadium is being erected on filled-in land. Large railroad terminal improvements in recent years have followed the commission's plan instead of being constructed, as was originally contemplated, in a way that would have strangled the city's growth. Under the present administration, the commission will have a cooperation from the city government that should go far in maintaining and even accelerating the progress of the immense task.



At the left, the present arrangement of the area around Fall River's city hall. On the right, Mr. Shurtleff's plan for the same area, with buildings of a temporary, casual nature done away with, and in their place municipal and public buildings and an open square. From the 1922 report of the Planning Board of Fall River

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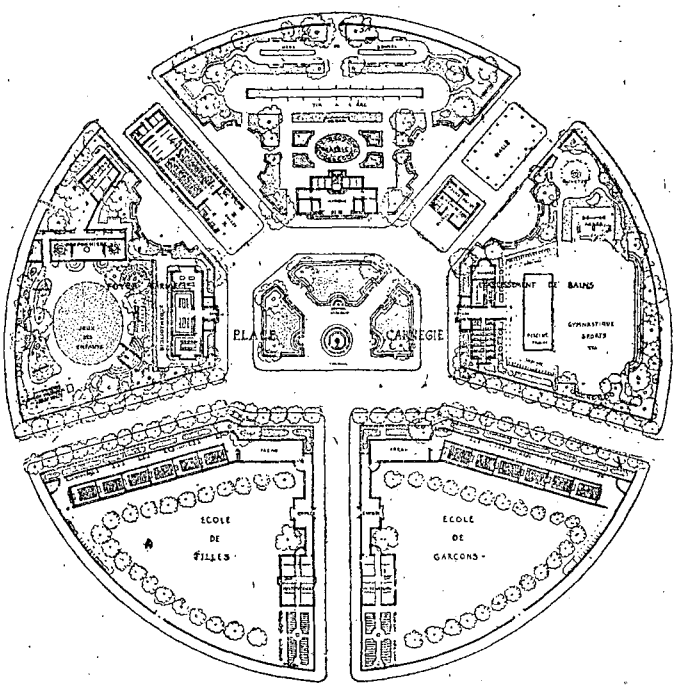
One of the most ambitious of recent city plans is that for Fall River, Massachusetts, made by Arthur A. Shurtleff. The drawings here reproduced represent only one element in a project which is equally detailed in the planning of streets, of parks and playgrounds of different sizes, a parkway, location of cemetery, homes and business premises. Mr. Shurtleff has drawn up a diagrammatic scheme for a well planned city and compared with it the actual planning of a number of the smaller industrial cities of Massachusetts. From this it appears that Fall River is well supplied with parks and playgrounds, most public services and school sites; that its principal shortcomings today are lack of a complete plan of development and of machinery for controlling that development. The need for a parkway is also argued in detail; but as in other reports, the distinction between a recreational park and a park for scenic beauty—through which one may drive but in which, because of considerable traffic, one would find little enjoyment walking or resting—is not clearly drawn.



Plan of the Place Carnegie which the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace is building in the French commune of Fragniers, as a point of convergence for the chief roads and the chief public interests of the district

Boston started its re-planning last year with the preparation of a zoning ordinance. There is now popular demand for more vigorous progress with the job of city planning itself. One of the difficulties here is, as every one knows, the tortuous nature of many of the older streets which give character to the city but make the advantages of street widenings, such as have been adopted elsewhere to ease traffic, an expedient of doubtful value compared with the cost. For as Nelson P. Lewis, general consultant of the Boston City Planning Board, has pointed out, the block dimensions are already so small that widenings and extensions would result in the creation of many remnants too small and irregular to permit proper usage. Another problem peculiar to Boston is the close proximity of built-up satellite towns and parts of towns politically independent but for all practical purposes part of the metropolitan area. On the other hand, compared with Greater New York, there is the advantage that these localities are all in the same state, so that a regional plan can be carried through with less political friction.

Baltimore, to judge from the reports given at the recent meetings there of the City Planning Conference, is likely to emerge from its present chrysalis of almost unmitigated ugliness a beautiful specimen of American city building. Here also the first step was the adoption of a workable zoning ordinance; and here also the problem of the city is so closely bound up with that of the surrounding rural and semi-urban counties that a comprehensive regional plan is necessary to secure all the advantages of scientific development.

Cleveland, in common with many other cities of rapid growth, has for some years struggled with the question of what to do with an old cemetery, planted in what once were the outskirts of the city but now encumbering a central section with an area that serves no present purpose, is in the way of traffic and does not even provide a quiet resting place for the dead. In some European countries, and especially in England, many such old cemeteries have been converted into parks and playgrounds—often designed in such a way as to incorporate in an artistic and dignified setting such parts of the original churchyard or individual graves as it was necessary or desirable to preserve. The City Plan Committee of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce has adopted such a plan for the treatment of the old Erie Street Cemetery, which consists of about ten acres near the heart of the city. The proposal is for the construction of a main traffic artery through the cemetery ground to connect thoroughfares to the east and west, an ornamental city park, a small neighborhood playground and a memorial park to the pioneers now buried in the cemetery. By concentrating the scattered graves into a small space, the committee suggests, a pioneers' memorial would be created, "more befitting the vigorous, hardy men and women who worked and sacrificed for their city than a partly abandoned graveyard, and far more helpful to the development of present and future generations." Thus the identity of the old cemetery would not be lost and the historical inspiration of the place heightened rather than lessened.

"Fifth Avenue is like a set of badly grown teeth," writes Professor C. H. Reilly, an English architect, in an article commenting favorably upon the influence of the newer zoning regulations upon American architecture. He says:

> The skyline of the new New York which is forming now will be unlike that of any other city in the world. It will be more romantic than that of any other city, if it is not so already. The combination possible of stepped building and tower, as in the Standard Oil structure, is proving that an outline more interesting even than that of the Woolworth Building can be obtained on any city site that is large enough.

What has become of all the city "adoptions" in the devastated areas of France and Belgium? Most of them have remained friendly gestures—and nothing more. One project, however, is now in actual creation which will provide in Europe a demonstration of American civic center planning at its best. This is the "Place Carnegie" in the French commune of Fragniers, in the Department of the Aisne—a town wiped out by the war—which the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace is building with a fund of $100,000 left over from an appropriation of $500,000 made in 1918 for reconstruction work and an additional $50,000 appropriated last year. All the chief roads of the district

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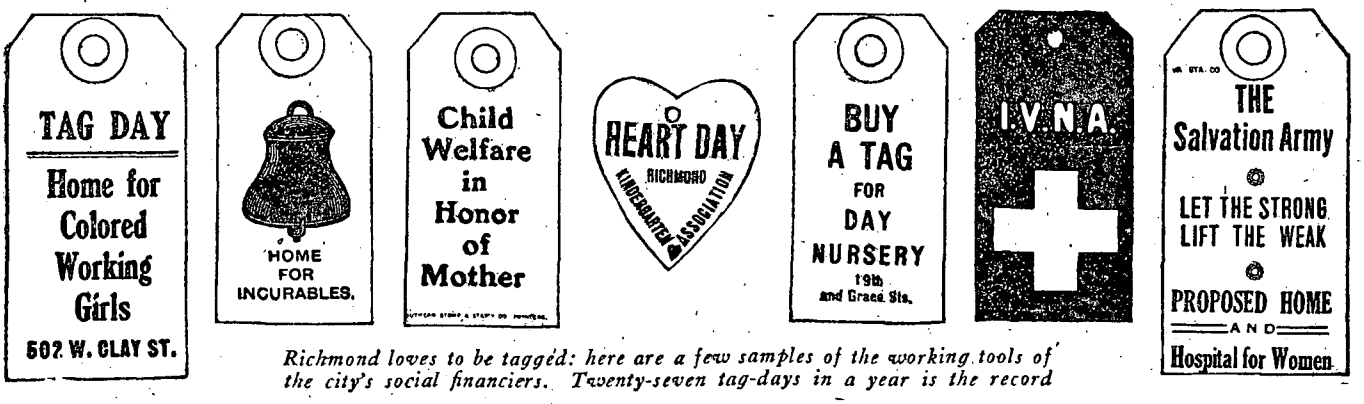

Richmond loves to be tagged: here are a few samples of the working tools of the city's social financiers. Twenty-seven tag-days in a year is the record

will meet in this model square which will be laid out as a park and surrounded by a town hall, post office, public library, public baths, girls' and boys' schools, police and fire department building, moving picture theater. If any money is left over, some model dwelling houses will also be erected.

A fresh attack on zoning, or rather one aspect of it, was made at the Atlantic City convention of the National Association of Building Owners and Managers the other day. Earle Schultz, of Chicago, president of the association, led this attack on ordinances that limit the height of office buildings. He said the normal increase in the nation's business required five million feet of new office floor annually and that spreading out this area, while doing nothing to reduce traffic congestion at certain points, materially added to the cost of building which had gone up from an average of $10 before the war to between $25 and $35 now. This argument seems to be in contradiction of the findings of other investigators that, because of the increased building costs and provision of elevator service, but more especially because of artificial inflation of land values, office construction above a certain height does not pay anyhow, as a rule.

Richmond's "It"

FEW CITIES in the United States are as thoroughly tagged as Richmond, Va., where more than half the local social agencies are accustomed to base their financial operations on what Francis H. McLean calls a "polite and moral hold-up." Several years before the war the Instructive Visiting Nurses' Association introduced the tag-day to Richmond with such success that its example has been enthusiastically followed. Twenty-seven different agencies in a single year have sent their most alluring adherents to beg on the street with the aid of a morsel of pasteboard.

The nearest Richmond has ever come to federated finance is the proposal made two or three years ago that the twenty-seven tag-days be telescoped into nine, on each of which three agencies would go tagging together. But that was too radical a change, and the plan was never carried out. Two weeks before the National Conference at Washington, Richmond submitted peaceably to a succession of three tag-days on Friday, Saturday and Monday!

Naturally the law of diminishing returns has begun to operate, and tag-days are less profitable there than they were in their hey-day. Mr. McLean points out in his recent Survey of Social Agencies of Richmond that tag-days *ad infinitum* are "distinctly detrimental to all forms of work" and continues

> Most money which is obtained through this means for a host of social agencies (in turn) about whose work the passersby have no knowledge, comes without there being any genuine interest aroused either before or afterwards. . . It is all rubbish to claim that this means a more democratic support. It means rather that a larger number of people feel more or less the sting of semi-involuntary separation from their money. But even that is not the worst. For the amounts of money from which many people are separated in connection with tag-days are very small indeed, but they grow in the imagination of the pseudo-givers because of the frequency of the stand-and-deliver-like-a-gentleman process. Giving small amounts to the agencies which have tag-days induces people to believe that they are over-taxed when they are not, and the agencies which endeavor to approach them in more intelligent ways suffer along with the others.

Mr. McLean considers the tag-day on behalf of a few "widely known social agencies whose activities may be fairly well visualized"—such as the Instructive Visiting Nurses' Association in the present instance—"not illegitimate." It is, of course, a primitive means of raising money at best.

Like the less-then-living wage, the twelve-hour day, child labor, and other forms of intrenched inefficiency, wholesale action is necessary to deal with the tag-day. Though there are notable exceptions among the Richmond agencies, which now raise their funds through an intelligent educational effort, it would clearly be difficult for the agencies which are accustomed to the get-rich-quick method of the tag-day to withdraw one by one from street solicitation, leaving their competitors still in possession of the field. Mr. McLean therefore suggests a municipal ordinance prohibiting after January 1, 1924, all tag-days except that of the I. V. N. A., which can claim not only proprietorship in the device so far as Richmond is concerned, but a genuine public understanding of the reasons for its appeal.

In place of tag-days Richmond social agencies must develop a straightforward appeal to an informed constituency. In this fundamental task they will need, and apparently are to have, the benefit of joint counsel. There has been in Richmond since 1911 a Council of Social Agencies; largely inactive from 1914 to 1921, it has now been revived, and under the leadership of Emma L. Zanzinger, general secretary of the Y. W. C. A., is ready to begin constructive service.

Its first step in this direction was to arrange for the general survey of Richmond's social agencies by Mr. McLean and Hilda K. Mills to which reference has already been made. This deals very extensively with the functional problems of local organizations, and more briefly with their financial problems. It outlines many specific opportunities for the development of better relations between the agencies and more complete occupation of the field, most of which involve the leadership and participation of the council of social agencies. Not the least of the responsibilities which the council is called upon to assume is the promotion of sound methods of publicity which may make tag-days superfluous.

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HEALTH

How Little We Know!

Dr. Louis I. Dublin, statistician of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, commented in the May Midmonthly (p. 223) upon The Biology of Death, by Dr. Raymond Pearl of Johns Hopkins University, and on certain deductions which, rightly or wrongly, the press had drawn from parts of that book. Here The Survey is glad to present Dr. Pearl's reply.

I SHOULD LIKE to comment briefly on the extremely courteous review by Dr. Louis I. Dublin of a small part of one chapter of my Biology of Death. First of all, let me say that obviously I cannot in fairness and justice be held responsible for the conclusions which newspaper and magazine writers may chance to draw from this book or any other of my writings. I am delighted to see that Dr. Dublin so fully and fairly recognizes this fact, as well as the further one that I am in no wise opposed to public health work, or skeptical about the value of a great deal of it. Really, of course, all this is only a roundabout way of saying that I am, I hope, not quite an idiot. Any sensible person who knows anything of human history knows that man's activities in the direction of sanitation and hygiene over the past two thousand years at least, and probably a much longer time, have been accompanied by a reduction in the average rate of mortality. He would be either feeble-minded or vicious who denied any causal relationship between these two series of events.

Hence it is that I can quite cheerfully agree with much that Dr. Dublin *says* in his paper. I am not quite so sure, however, about the agreement between us in respect of what is in the back of our minds when we make statements about this very complex problem. Perhaps then, since there is no disposition on anybody's part to be acrimonious in this matter, and since doubtless everybody would agree that what we are all honestly trying to do is to make the world a better place to live in, which is an obviously complicated matter involving a great deal more than mere statistics, I may be permitted briefly to state something of my own point of view.

Human beings vary greatly in all particulars, physical, mental, moral, and all the rest. On the basis of one aspect only of temperament all human beings can be roughly divided into two categories: one made up of those who are naturally, instinctively, temperamentally, *believers*, the other made up of those who are naturally, instinctively, and temperamentally *questioners*. The believer's general reaction to any proposition not new is that it is probably so, if it fulfills two requirements; first, that it in general accords fairly well with the body of things that he already believes, or seems likely upon further examination so to accord, and second, if it is believed, or seems likely to be, by a considerable number of respectable persons, in whose judgment, as he is wont to phrase it, he has confidence, meaning by this merely persons whose reactions and thoughts are just like his own. Any really new idea fares badly with a believer because it fits in with neither of his requirements. The believer is always respectable, always has a large following, and leads, I am told, a happy life.

The questioner, on the other hand, reacts to any proposition new or old by instinctively regarding it as perhaps not so, and is quite uninfluenced in the matter, either by who or how many think it is so. He has a particular weakness for new ideas just because they are new and therefore give him something new to test. In this, as in many respects, he is quite child-like, indeed never does really grow up to be a serious, respectable person. His life is devoted to trying to find out objectively what is so and what is not. Like all inquisitive children, he is a nuisance in a well ordered society. But in fairness it should be remembered that he cannot help it. He was born that way, and like the organist in the apocryphal yarn, is doing his best and therefore should not be shot. Fortunately for all of us, believers are in a great majority in the world.

Now it has been borne in on me with advancing years that I must have been born a questioner. In consequence of this dubious inheritance I began some twenty years ago (my first paper on vital statistics was published in 1903) to study the facts recorded about human mortality. During the last five years I have been doing this quite intensively. The impression which has all the time grown stronger and stronger within me is how *little* we really know about disease, its causation, its natural history, its biology in short. I suppose Dr. Dublin is all the time more and more impressed by *how much* we know, in a real practical sort of way, about morbific processes. *Hinc illae lacrymae.* We were both born that way. We are friends. He knows that I would not willingly harm a living thing or hinder in the slightest degree the progress of anything calculated to make human beings happier, just as well as I know that he would not. The difference is only as to the technique of the best way to ensure that rapid progress in this direction which we both so eagerly desire.

He says, "It is right and wise that communities shall tax themselves more and more heavily to prevent disease and to prolong life." It seems to me, though perhaps I miss the point, that there is something wrong with this statement. I had supposed, perhaps naively, that small-pox had cost the world progressively less, both in gross and net, since Jenner's discovery. And in general it has always seemed to me that if we knew specifically just how completely to prevent a disease by rendering entire populations immune to it, it would not require ever more heavy taxation to do it. Because by the very premise itself, the disease would be all the time becoming less prevalent, and hence there would be less of it to prevent, and hence however costly might be the prevention of one case, taken in the aggregate the total expense would be growing less all the time instead of greater. Perhaps my reasoning about this matter is warped by a peculiar personal prejudice I have against ever heavier and heavier taxes for anything. But still I cannot get over the feeling somehow

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that Dr. Dublin has overlooked a phenomenon the economists claim to have observed, which they even call the "law" of diminishing returns. Still of course we cannot possibly be even approaching the time when this phenomenon will appear in public health work, based upon existing knowledge. Indeed, if I correctly understand the implication of Dr. Dublin's statement, we never shall. I hope he is wrong, because I cannot view with any equanimity at all these heavier and heavier taxes.

DR. DUBLIN rightly says that my examples of "preventable" and "not prevented" diseases, and of countries backward and forward in health work do not prove anything. I never thought they did myself. I do not believe anybody else ever did. Dr. Dublin seems to be unnecessarily fearful that somebody might think they had probative value. It seems to me if the side of the case which Dr. Dublin so eloquently defends were intrinsically as strong as he says it is, that it would not want such a lot of chattering about as it gets. It must mean that he thinks his fellowmen, on the average, stupider than I do.

But these examples were, as I have said, never intended to be taken as proof of anything. They were illustrations of what I think to be a general phenomenon of human biology. Dr. Dublin evidently thinks they were badly chosen illustrations and as his judgment on such matters is thought by many to be sound, I suppose they may have been. But still I venture to think, if this were a proper place for a technical discussion of more or less recondite statistical matters, that a better case could be made out for these illustrations than Dr. Dublin tells the readers of The Survey that they are in. But for the sake of saving time, and the patience of the reader, I am willing to let it go as he puts it. Therefore let us drop the illustrations and talk about the thing they were supposed to illustrate, so unhappily as it now appears. It seems to me to be at least highly probable from what it known in the realms of bacteriology, immunology and epidemiology that there exist, from causes in the main as yet wholly unknown, secular changes, large in amount, and regular in character, and often spread over long periods of time, in (a) the infectibility and the virulence of pathogenic organisms, and (b) the natural resistance of human beings to infectious agents. If this be so, and I am sure that Dr. Dublin will not deny the existence of the large corpus of evidence to which I refer, then it must logically follow that there have been and will be large secular fluctuations in the rate of mortality quite independent of any conscious activities of mankind in the premises. If this be in any measure true, might it not be the part of wisdom, before embarking too wholeheartedly on this program of ever-increasing taxation, to make some study of this phenomenon, and try to evaluate its significance in the whole picture?

To illustrate my meaning let me call attention to the fact that the mortality rate from tuberculosis began to decline long before the tubercle bacillus was discovered, or before any campaign against the disease was inaugurated. There are a number of persons (other than myself, let me hasten to say) whose intellectual competence Dr. Dublin would cheerfully admit to be at least equal to his, notably Professor Karl Pearson, who believe the facts to indicate that the decline in the tuberculosis death rate has not been materially, if at all, hastened by the tuberculosis campaign. The plain truth is that nobody knows, in any scientific sense of the word, what have been the major causes in the decline of the tuberculosis death-rate, or what would have been the course of its mortality curve had there been no campaign specifically directed against it, or what would happen to it in the next twenty years if every tuberculosis association in the world shut up shop tomorrow. Some day some one may make a discovery about tuberculosis somewhat equivalent to that of Jenner about small-pox. When he does, and such is my faith in the power of rare human intelligences that I am not lacking in confidence that something of the sort may happen, then there will be no more tuberculosis associations any more than there are small-pox associations now. They will not be needed. Why we have tuberculosis associations now is because of our ignorance of how effectively to control tuberculosis, not because of our knowledge. It is a complex and baffling, unusually chronic, disease. We are, and ought to be, doing our feeble, groping best to mitigate the misery and suffering and loss to humanity which it entails. But is there a tuberculosis worker in the world, health officer, visiting nurse, physician, or other, who would not go down on his knees and thank God and stop pretty much all that he is now doing, if tomorrow there were put into his hands a means of preventing tuberculosis as effective as vaccine is in preventing small-pox?

So then what my badly presented (because so misunderstood) part of Chapter VIII was trying to do was to plead not for less public health work, but more (and ever more) accurate and precise knowledge on which to base ever more, and particularly more effective public health work. Is this wrong? Is it culpable?

RAYMOND PEARL

Mad Dog!

HYDROPHOBIA, the disease of humans and many animals carnivorous and otherwise, in which death always follows the inoculation of the saliva of a rabid animal in the unprotected flesh, has been the penalty we have carried because of our love of the dearest companion of mankind, the friendly dog. While tuberculosis, which kills so many of us, has the highest recovery rate in proportion to those infected, rabies or hydrophobia is 100 per cent fatal once the symptoms of the disease have appeared. Not until Pasteur saved the life of little Joseph Meister in 1885 after he had been mangled by a rabid dog was there any record of recovery from the disease. The 278 treated cases of persons bitten by rabid dogs by the Health Department of New York City in the past six years with but one death fifteen days or more after treatment (that is, a case in which the serum was administered sufficiently early but proved ineffective) is proof of the almost 100 percent perfection of the protective treatment of the attenuated virus as Pasteur developed it.

But fear of hydrophobia can by no means be relegated to the past. And the lapdog enthusiasts, the humanoids who resent the annoyance to their pets demanded by the muzzling ordinance, have waged a ceaseless war on health authorities, and incidentally on other people's defenseless children, by opposing at every step the regulations called for to give some protection against the fangs of the restless dogs on the highway. They may never have read of the terror rabies caused a century ago in France when persons suffering from it were smothered between mattresses, or shot or poisoned or strangled. They may not know that epidemics of rabies still occur, and are especially to be dreaded in our western states

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where wild animals become infected with the disease and in turn infect domestic live-stock. In 1915 the California counties of Modoc and Lassen lost $100,000 in livestock through rabies; bringing the disease under control involved the killing of 7,160 coyotes, 1091 dogs, 790 domestic cats, 430 bobcats, 496 polecats. Nearly 70,000 poisoned baits were placed, for which 2602 rabbits and 2134 squirrels were used. A similar outbreak is threatening California at present, and has cost five human lives and considerable financial loss since the first of the year.

From Japan in 1921 two experimenters, Umeno and Doi, advised the world of the success of the preventive vaccination of dogs against rabies, and it is perhaps a particularly appropriate accident that international appreciation has received its first extensive application in California. Some months ago Kings County of that state passed an ordinance which has been rigidly enforced, requiring that all dogs within the county be vaccinated or confined on the premises of their owners.

A rabies victim of the middle ages, enjoying an application of the family doctor's bezoar. The bezoar antedated the mad stone, in favored use for mad dog bites until recent times

Modoc County, where there were at least fifty cases of rabies in the first quarter of the year, recently followed suit and authorized the county health officer to employ three or more deputies to enforce the act. Englewood, New Jersey, has been practising this wise precaution for more than a year, with good results, and a state law with the same object as the California statutes is now under consideration in New Jersey. An annual license with the protective vaccination, or else keep the dog off the highway and on private property is the reasonable alternative offered to dog owners. Since we cannot eradicate the disease and keep it out, as England has been able to do because of her insular position, we will come to the use of this new scientific resource as an effective means of eliminating the disease, for there is small chance of spread by other animals once the domestic dog is excluded.

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

East Siders in "the Mountains"

"SO THIS is the Mountains!" said a middle-aged little woman standing, with four little children and as many suitcases and packages gathered around her, in a station in Ulster County, in the Catskill Mountains. We were waiting for the same farmer, who had failed to meet our train on time. "So this is the Mountains! Well, may God help us!"

I did not understand the tragic meaning behind this last expression of hers until we were settled on the farm. We were only "roomers," not "boarders." There were fifteen other families in the small farmhouse, mostly women and children. We paid for a room anywhere from $50 to $100 for the season, and pledged ourselves to purchase our provisions from the farmer. Fifteen women used one kitchen with one small stove. Forty children lived under one roof, occupying, with their mothers, but fifteen dingy pigeonhole rooms, playing and sunning themselves on one narrow porch. There was incessant noise—running and falling and shrieking; crying and laughing and shouting.

It was on the porch in the evening that the pathos of that pious invocation of the little woman at the railroad station was revealed to me. She was a sympathetic little person with a melancholy sallow face and bleary eyes.

The night was cool. From the top of Minnewaska mountain, several miles distant, twinkled the light of its elegant hotel, which rumor had it, charged $100 a week for board —a fabulous sum in our section of the mountains.

"Ah, God knows, God knows!" sighed Mrs. Ratner to herself, with the evident intent of enlisting my audience. I turned and looked at her encouragingly. "Who knows," she continued, "if all the trouble and hardship will be of any avail; only God knows!" The note of despair in her voice was unmistakable.

"Why should you worry so much, Mrs. Ratner?" I asked. "The rest you and your children will have here will more than repay you for your trouble. It's a good investment."

"Ah, rest," she responded wistfully, "if all I needed was rest, do you think I would come out here? I can't afford it. My husband is only a workingman. It costs me $20 a week here and the farmer kicks I don't buy enough. But what can I do? I have to pay rent at home and my husband has to live too. Rest, one of our class can't afford to take a rest. That's for them." She pointed to the twinkling lights on Minnewaska mountain. "It isn't rest that I came for."

"Tell me," she begged, sadly, "is it possible for a person to bleed from his throat and not have consumption?" And before I could find anything to reply she explained her question. "Blood has been running from my throat ever so often for a few years now. I went to doctors and they examined me and gave me medicine, but it didn't help me any. Then I went to a board of health doctor, and he too said that I have no consumption but that something is wrong with my heart —something is torn there and bleeds when I get excited or very nervous. He told me to go to the mountains and drink milk and eggs. So here I am, but I don't feel better, and it makes me think maybe the doctor didn't have the heart to tell me the truth."

It is fear of the white plague that impels these pale New Yorkers to come to the mountains. There is love of nature mingled with it, but that could wait, just as the hope for a better day, for a more bearable life. But the fear of consumption is all-powerful. It uproots habit, convention, inertia, and even the fear of the unknown distance. Even the farmers of the neighborhood, I found, had for the most part been sweatshop workers who had caught a "touch" and had escaped into the Catskills to evade complete collapse.

I said there were fifteen other families on our farm seeking a rest in the mountains. All of them sorely needed rest and but few found it.

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Refugees from New York

FROM the East Side of New York to the green valleys of the southern Catskills a broad path has been worn by Jewish families who seek a refuge from the city in summer—the best refuge they can afford. A quarter of a million of such refugees have created a grave sanitary problem in the farmlands of Ulster and Sullivan counties where farmers, largely of their own race, permit their houses to become as congested as the tenements of Hester Street.

The epidemic of infantile paralysis in 1916 first directed attention sharply to insanitary housing in these summer colonies. It was discovered that farmhouses intended for five or six occupants were accommodating from 25 to 100 while their owners, newcomers themselves, and unfamiliar with sanitary requirements, had done nothing to supplement the water supply or the facilities for disposal of sewage. An extensive investigation by the New York State Department of Health enlisted the interest of the Jewish Agricultural Society, which began in 1918 a vigorous campaign to clean up "the mountains." Emphasis was placed on three factors: the safe disposal of human waste, a safe water supply, and the protection of food from fly infection.

With Dr. Edward Goodwin as director, the society set up a Bureau of Sanitation to cooperate with Dr. Frank W. Laidlaw, the sanitary supervisor for the state. Farms, rooming and boarding houses were visited and inspected, instruction was given both landlord and tenants, mass meetings were held, health information in Yiddish was distributed widely, towns and villages were led to adopt reasonable sanitary regulations, a complete sanitary exhibit was installed at the bureau's headquarters in Ellenville, and by 1921 the educational campaign had progressed far enough so that a Farmers Sanitary League could be successfully organized to insure effective local cooperation. The league now issues annual certificates to landlords who keep their places up to standard. The Council of Jewish Women has shared the task of breaking through language barriers and reaching the farmers and their wives.

Meanwhile the society has carried the campaign into the winter months, and reaches through popular lectures in the city schools many of the same families who go to "the mountains" in summer.

The intensive field work continued during 1922 involved no less than 844 inspection visits and resulted in definite sanitary improvements in 91 per cent of the farms visited. The demand for garbage cans in Ulster County was so great that many dealers sold out early in July. The sanitary condition of the region has so greatly improved that the society is now beginning to turn its attention to other districts—to parts of New London County, Connecticut, for example—where similar work is desirable.

There was Mrs. Weissberg. She, too, had four children, and from dawn to late in the night she was on her feet, cooking and washing and caring for them. She spoke better English than the other women, having been born in this country. When I first met her I judged her to be between forty and forty-five years of age, and when, later, I learned that she was only thirty-two I was not surprised. The woman was literally crumbling under the strain. Her little ones were puny, anemic, emaciated. She came, upon the advice of her husband's Lodge doctor, to rest her nerves in the mountains. And the poor woman used to grit her teeth to stifle her screams at the nerve-shattering racket filling our farm.

Many of the women had come mainly for the sake of their children. They hadn't been doing well, these little ones, in the stifling, dirty tenements of the overcongested East Side and Brownsville, and they had come for a breath of the invigorating outdoors, for a sip of pure milk, and a taste of a fresh, warm egg. But they did not get these things: not even the fresh air.

Here were women who knew nothing of the simplest rules of health; to whom the most elementary axioms of hygiene were obscure mysteries. They ate on dirty tables and often served their children on the still dirtier porch; their dishes were seldom washed and never boiled or sterilized—and there was often great need for sterilization.

Mrs. Feierhoff insisted on keeping her four-year old Abie, a husky chap, sufficiently warm. All through July she dressed him in flannel underwear and woolen stockings and topshirts, occasionally reinforced by an extra sweater, until the poor boy looked like a sweltering little bear.

The farm was a small one and its meager yield of produce and dairy fell far short of supplying the wants of the roomers. The farmer bought eggs and butter and cream and vegetables from neighboring farmers and from the city and sold them to us at a profit of 50 and 75 per cent. Many an egg served was unfit for eating. The milk had very little butter-fat, soured quickly, and left in the container a fine sediment of sand and dirt. And these were the fresh, "chicken-laid" eggs and the pure milk the children had come for!

We exchanged visits with other boarding settements; all farms resembled one another; all roomers and boarders, though they disclosed individual characteristics, were of the same class. They came into the mountains to rest and forget their sorry East Side; but it came with them, with its crushing problems, its sordid environment, its influence, taunting, persecuting, molding them.

N. B. FAGIN

WHILE HOSPITALS have been taking on the functions of schools, the doctors themselves have been learning the duties of schoolmasters, with the opportunity and duty to educate their patients and their communities in preventing disease or handling it intelligently when it does occur. Professional leadership, advice, and cooperation has, of course, always led the work of public and private health agencies; but such new developments as Hygeia, the laymen's magazine published and sponsored by the American Medical Association, show a conception of professional responsibility which reaches even further. The Medical Society of Lenoir County, North Carolina, has been at work for the better part of a year to inform the people of the county on health and disease through a number of meetings held each week in schools and churches. The papers are prepared by the doctors who read them, and censored by the society; each speaker agrees to address thirteen meetings during the year, or find a substitute. The Colorado State Medical Society, confronted by the need of defeating an anti-vivisection bill, undertook an active campaign of lay education and organized an Association for the Protection of Public Health, which included both laymen and doctors. The Public Health Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine has carried on for twelve years a unique and constantly widening program, which includes independent study and investigation of health problems and their social implications, and an effort to get them before the public and the special groups primarily concerned with them.

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The Devil and the Quaker

"HAVE you heard of the clinic for malaria the Americans have opened?"

"I have heard—and is it true that they take blood from the fingers of the people who come?"

"It is true—and do you know why they take it? They take it to sell to the anti-christ—the devil!"

A gasp. "And what does he do with it?"

"If the blood pleases him, he takes the sickness from it. If it does not please him the malaria stays."

Dr. Sauchey, the Russian member of the medical staff of the Friends Mission, was drinking tea with some friends in Sorochinskoye. She remained silent while a neighbor thus described her work. But now she asked:

"And do you know for sure that they sell the blood to the devil?"

The neighbor shrugged her shoulders. "We are dark people—we understand nothing. But so it is said—"

"I am a doctor, and I work at the clinic every day. It is not true that we sell the blood to the devil. We take the blood so we can find out whether or not you have malaria, so we may know whether to give you the quinine or not."

"Bog s'tobi!"—and she made that characteristic little Russian gesture with her hand which says "you can't fool me." "Perhaps it is all right what you do. But I am old. I will not sell my soul to the devil. My little girls are sick with the malaria. For them it is all right. They have still plenty of time to do good in their lives, it is nothing if they do a little bad now and come to you. But I am so old myself I will die tomorrow and how then will I answer to God?"

Then a new thought struck her, and she leaned forward with a crafty little gleam in her eyes.

"Tell me now—why do you always take the blood *from the middle finger of the right hand?*"

"Because it is more convenient for me when you hold your hand out—that is the easiest one to take from."

"No! That is not true! It is because we use that finger when we cross ourselves—and that is the only finger the devil wishes!"

❀

A CROWD of people at the door of the clinic, a crowd in the corridor of the Quaker office, a crowd overflowing out into the street. This traffic with the devil seems to please the peasants. One after another they come to Dr. Sauchey as she sits at the table, her needle and her quinine tablets ready. One after another they ask, "What finger do you want?"

"To me it is all the same."

But they keep on giving that middle finger. Comes a boy of eighteen offering that finger.

"And do you, too, think we sell your blood to the devil?"

"I know certainly that you sell it. But I don't care. You may do all that you will. I only care that I have no more malaria. I have done so much bad in my life, and sold my soul so many times to the devil already, that one more time doesn't matter."

❀

THE patient must come to the clinic every day for six days to take the quinine tablets. After that, dormant parasites are given two weeks to develop and then the patient must come back and take daily doses for five days more. Any remaining parasites that may have hatched out meanwhile are given another week and then killed off in four final doses.

Now when those first lively parasites are killed off the fever stops, and very often the patient thinks it is not necessary to go back to the clinic any more. And when the fever starts up again a month later, and the patient comes back again to the clinic, those first quinine tablets have all been thrown away and the course has to be started over again from the beginning. Or perhaps they come back when they are told, but take their quinine to the market place, where it brings 1,000,000 rubles a tablet. They think that the quinine really hasn't anything to do with the treatment anyway, so why not sell it?

❀

CHILDREN under eight years old get a little piece of chocolate with their quinine tablets. A strapping boy of fourteen comes in. "How old are you?" "Seven."

❀

TODAY, the 2nd of March, Dr. Lupo, the head of the medical department of the mission, who organized the clinic, tells me that 2,500 people have received blood tests since it was opened five weeks ago. Dr. Fawcett, the mission's bacteriologist, finds that most of the blood which is thickest with parasites has been taken from children under five, sometimes even under one year. One explanation is that the children seldom go out of doors in the winter time when they are under school age, but are kept bundled up in the tropical climate of the Russian stove, and the heat makes the parasites think it is summer, so they come swarming to the outer circulation.

Dr. Lupo's dream is to establish a similar clinic in each of the districts in the American section of Buzuluk County. All the materials are here, and it is simply a question of bringing in enough quinine. Summer is coming. The malaria rages among the peasants most fiercely at just the time when all their strength is needed for work on the fields. Certainly one of the most important measures of both relief and reconstruction is to rid them of this scourge.

JESSICA SMITH

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Why They Tell

In Judge Hoffman's notable court of domestic relations in Cincinnati Miss McChristie, who has the title of assistant chief probation officer, has for seven years been sitting as acting woman judge to examine girls. Here she sets down the fruit of her experience in leading girls to tell, willingly or unwillingly, the truth about themselves. Her own deprecatory description of her observations is that they are "intuitive and not psychological." They should be of help to all caseworkers who build on the cornerstone of the interview.

EVERYBODY is either interviewing or being interviewed all the time. Our lives are a series of continuous interviews, casual and important. They begin when some privileged auntie makes us lisp our age. They continue through the years until some designing acquaintance compromises us by asking the same question. But with the passing of the years we develop sagacity and evasiveness; qualities always in conflict with the other fellow's curiosity and desire to know. There evolves a technique of self-protection which to the normal person means privacy, and to the abnormal, self-protection and often freedom from commitment to a penal institution.

Many far-sighted juvenile court judges appoint women referees to hear all the delinquent girls' cases. This is a great advance from the time when girl's cases were assigned indiscriminately to either men or women officers; when the girl delinquents were compelled to confess to immorality before a careless mixed crowd where they were as conspicuous as Hester wearing the scarlet letter. No matter how detached and professional a man judge may be in his contacts, this girl sex delinquent is keenly conscious of his masculinity and the intimate nature of the questions he is forced to ask. The natural confidence inspired by a woman judge talking to one of her own sex; the intimate understanding one woman has of another's temptations and weaknesses; the chance to give the girl her first clean lesson in sex education—all these, and many unexpressed reasons, make this hearing more informative and humane. Essentially and distinctively this is a woman's work.

In the past seven years there have entered my interviewing room over six thousand delinquent adolescent girls, all determined to tell me nothing. With few exceptions, before they have passed out of the room they have all told me everything.

In all these cases, one must concentrate upon the objective, which is information. It is necessary to keep the senses alert, to observe the girl's approach; to scan facial expressions; to note signs of nervousness; to consider physical and mental make-up; to register postures; to listen to evasions and recriminations; to discern hesitancy, obtuseness, falsity; to ask apparently meaningless questions and receive ineffectual answers. Out of this maze of impressions evolves a plan of action, a knowledge of reactional response and a valuation of facial expressions as indicators of emotion.

The eye must be trained to get the first and strongest impression as the offender enters the room. After she is seated—always with her face to the light—certain features must be watched covertly and constantly. The eye is the mental register, the pivotal point for observation. It will accept no conscious or unconscious orders. Control may be consciously expressed over every feature of the face, but the eye tells its tale in unmistakable language. My girl often drops her eyes, looks this way and that, and shields them from my gaze. She recognizes her weakness; she realizes that eyes tell tales. Pairs upon pairs of eyes look into ours each day; lying, evading, fearless, many unashamed.

The eye is also an excellent interpreter when there are several interested parties in the room. Flashes of hatred, expressions of love, of fear, of vindictiveness, each tell a tragic story of misplaced emotion and anti-social acts.

I distinctly remember the venomous look that flashed from a daughter's eye into those of her father, whom she accused of rape. The case was heard by the grand jury, and upon the daughter's evidence the man was convicted and sentenced to the penitentiary. Never forgetting that "I knew I'd get even" look, we kept in close touch with her. One year later she tragically announced that "she was mad" at her father at the time—that she swore him into the penitentiary to get even. One year of that man's life had been sacrificed because a poor interviewer had been dealing with a vindictive hater.

The mouth reveals character of action just as the eye indicates character of thought. Expressions here play unrestricted. For this reason the mouth must be watched constantly. A twitching at the corners is often indicative of a sense of humor. If your girl becomes amused, end proceedings abruptly, for the positions of interviewer and interviewed have reversed themselves and one's purpose is instantly defeated.

Eloquently expressive of various emotions are the hands which may remain quiet, tremble with nervousness, or twitch spasmodically. They are often the barometer when the face itself is expressionless.

The Critical First Contact

No matter what the mood, the path leading into the innermost recesses of that mind must be traveled slowly. Each interview must be intensive, individualistic and leisurely. Nothing that child welfare workers do is so fundamentally and psychologically important as the way they conduct the first interview. Ordinarily, this is the child's first contact with the forces of law and order. Her ideas of justice, her responsibility to the laws of social conduct and morality are being molded as she sits there, impressionable and susceptible.

After the girl seats herself there is a short silence—then, with a smile, the leading question: "Why are you here today?" It is asked with a rising inflection, expressing an interested desire to know. Many different responses are

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given, some haltingly, some hysterically. Within the first three minutes the girl's attitude, expression and answer enable one to classify her as resentful, defiant, stubborn, confused, moody, responsive, fearful. No matter what her mood, she is usually in court because her parents or her community, or her state has failed properly to safeguard her. So this victim of circumstances sits there, trembling or defiant, dreading the coming catechism.

If she is stubborn, a halting, sullen answer follows. She feels the whole world is against her. She determines to be misjudged rather than to commit herself. She refuses to tell the names of the boy offenders in her desire to protect them. Sometimes she has to be threatened with detention before she will consent to talk; but a good interviewer uses this alternative very seldom.

If she is defiant, the girl tosses her head, refuses to meet one's eyes, maintains absolute silence. We drop the subject and talk about clothes, books, the movies, compliment her on some pretty feature she is not quite sure she possesses—say anything to divert her mind from the point at issue. After a time (these interviews are necessarily prolonged), the girl begins to unbend, smiles a little, and we know our real work is just beginning. Often she relapses again and again into these fits of silence, only to be coddled anew.

Romance and Plain Lies

There is a great difference between a deliberate lie and a play on the imaginative function. When we see that the girl is revelling in the situation, we allow her imagination full play. Suddenly some question expressing doubt is shot at her. She is surprised, thrown off her guard and instantly removed from her self-erected pedestal. When her failure to make an impression is accentuated, she becomes more compliant and submissive. With her self-confidence shattered, her next story will be nearer the truth. Cases of alleged seduction reek with sensational stories of automobile hold-ups and abandoned houses. The rent problem would solve itself easily if all abandoned houses "mentally" preempted by my girls were available for living purposes.

If the girl is responsive and talkative, she may be motivated by the play of her imagination, her love of the sensational, fear of the court, or a tendency either to lie or to become hysterical. All court workers can visualize many sensation-seeking girls, big-eyed and enjoying the show.

Often we summon boys to the hearing. They present as many and varying moods as the girls, and are very difficult for a woman to interview. They want no sermonizing, no sentimentalizing—that amuses them intensely. They usually enter the room half-contemptuously, or with a detached air, as if enjoying the show. They do respond to a straight talk, without any trimmings, as to the consequences of sex indulgence. A reference to a mother or sister will serve with some; with others it has the opposite effect, for the boy becomes suspicious of being "played upon." Never, unless I desire to ridicule a boy, do I have him talk before any women; in dealing with a smart-aleck, this is desirable.

Except for a specific purpose, the boy and girl are never interviewed together, for this only accentuates the attachment. Occasionally we must have them together in order to gauge the temperature. We note whether they regard the offense as serious, and often alienate the two when we

Sixty Years of Service in Chicago

Sixty Years of Service is the title of an eighty-seven page report of the United Charities of Chicago, just issued. It covers especially the years 1919-22, but as the title indicates has a slightly historical flavor.

Here is a span of service about equal to the average age of a president. In this period Chicago grew from less than 100,000 in population to nearly three million. It is interesting to note the recognition which the founders gave to the idea of service and prevention as well as relief, as long ago as 1857. The original charter of the Chicago and Relief Aid Society set forth the objects of the incorporators thus:

"To provide a permanent, efficient and practical mode of administering and distributing the private charities of the city of Chicago; to examine and establish the necessary means for obtaining full and reliable information of the condition and the wants of the poor of said city, and putting into practical and efficient operation the best system of relieving and preventing want and pauperism therein."

However faithful the early programs of the organization may have been to this idea, this current report, with its descriptions of the work of the Family Social Work Department, Home Economics, Legal Aid, Nursery and Health Center, Summer Outings and other activities, shows a rich and varied ministry.

There is an admirably executed spot map which shows the residence of those who have been dealt with by the organization, the strategic location of the district offices and the prevailing national and racial groups, and also the residence of the larger givers. As would be expected, the orbits of affluence lie outside of the places where the map gets black in the face.

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do not deny that one or the other has made the complaint. If the boy thinks the girl has reported him he hates her; she feels the same way, though a little less intensely. Her affections are always confused with her passions, and she does not make the rigid distinction that the growing man so early learns to do.

The eyes of the interviewer, thoughtful, earnest, incurious, must keep always in their depths a smile of understanding. They must never be raised to the child's face after she makes some shocking revelation. Lowered and then suddenly raised they do often detect on the other face an expression most illuminating and often incriminating.

One should never write a word during a confessional. If the mind is not retentive, the interviewer lacks a most important requisite. Nothing is so inimical to confidence as the poised pen or pencil. Even a trustful child senses the gravity of words recorded, and refuses to talk. Often the most startling information is obtained when the child's mind is distracted by some outside agent. Sometimes, if one plays rhythmically with an object on the desk, the girl's eyes will follow the movement, and she will then ramble on, telling much more than she realizes.

No "mental old maid" should be allowed to interview girls. Chronological age is of no consequence: she may be sixty and realize that love is still in the world, or she may be thirty and fail of this realization. The interviewer must have a sense of humor, an understanding of the ecstatic thrills of adolescence. She must, above all, realize that sex is a beautiful and not an abhorrent thing.

My ideal woman probation officer should dress well, fashionably if possible. Girls capitulate very quickly to a woman of good taste in dress. If she looks old-maidish they immediately group her with the unattached; discredit her motives, call her soured, and rather pityingly wonder if she has ever had a thrill. No contact of mental thought or mutual admiration is established.

This point was interestingly demonstrated after a conference held at the Girl's Industrial School, Delaware, Ohio. When the girls themselves were asked for written opinions regarding their probation officers, their patronizing remarks were significant.

One wrote: "Well, they are not such bad scouts after all, even though they didn't get up very early, didn't comb their hair in the latest style, didn't wear stylish clothes: They were all right within." For the life of me I can't see why we can't be all right without!

The interviewer is not through when the door closes. She sits quietly and reviews this never-ending procession—the incorrigible girl, the elusive thief, the fascinating vagrant, the impulsive boy. She visualizes their features, actions, expressions; eliminates the vaguer impressions; mentally tabulates prominent characteristics; recalls each telltale word, glance and gesture; discards non-essentials, makes her diagnoses—and prepares for the task of scientific rehabilitation.

MARY EDNA MCCHRISTIE

For Pennsylvania Patriarchs

THREE rather puny legislative infants, fathered by the 1923 legislatures in Montana, Nevada and Pennsylvania, represent the beginnings of public old age pensions in the United States. The western laws were described in The Survey for May 15, 1923 (p. 239) as providing not a pension for old age, but a "possible pension for aged paupers." The Pennsylvania act, more recently adopted, indicates that the state is timidly and somewhat blindly entering this new field of social service.

The Pennsylvania law permits assistance to applicants who

Are seventy years of age or over;
Have been citizens of the United States for fifteen years;
Have been citizens of the state for fifteen years, with certain allowances for intermittent residence;
Are not inmates of correctional institutions or insane asylums;
Have not deserted wife or husband, or have not failed to support their children for more than six months during the last fifteen years;
Have not been professional tramps or beggars within one year;
Are not possessed of property of more than three thousand dollars;
Have not deprived themselves of property in order to qualify for assistance.

Administration is entrusted to a commission of three, appointed by the governor, which in turn appoints an old age assistance superintendent who must be "qualified by character, training and experience" and who is to receive the munificent salary of $1,800. Before passage the bill was amended to omit a requirement that the superintendent must have had training and experience in problems of relief and be familiar with the social and economic conditions of the commonwealth. The governor also points in each county an old age assistance board consisting of three residents of the county who receive expenses but no salary; each board may appoint one or more investigators at $900 each. Another amendment struck out a provision that these investigators should be nominated by the state commissioners and approved by the state superintendent.

The county board makes all the investigations, but final decision in each case rests with the state commission. Not only are the country boards lacking in direct administrative relation to the state commission, but that in turn is apparently left outside the supervision of the state department of public welfare, so that a new element of disintegration is introduced into the welfare policy of the state.

Assistance cannot exceed one dollar per day—including income from all other sources. Payment may be made to an institution on behalf of an inmate, and no institution may refuse admittance because an applicant is receiving old age assistance. Recipients cannot receive further relief from other public sources, except medical and surgical treatment. While the county pays the expenses of its own board, the cost of state administration and the full amount granted as assistance is a charge on the state treasury. To finance this service for two years the legislature has appropriated $25,000, little more than one per cent of the amount sought in the original bill.

Pennsylvania social workers feel that all the dangers inherent in public outdoor relief, so often cited, are exemplified in this plan. The unwillingness of the legislature to require trained and qualified investigators and administrators leaves the field open for political appointees. The wretchedly inadequate salaries provided as a maximum make it practically impossible to secure efficient service. The amount allowed for assistance is undoubtedly insufficient. The age limit is so high that the law will not change materially the almshouse constituency or problem. The appropriation amounts to a futile gesture in the face of the problem; Pennsylvania will merely mark time for two years.

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Yet it is desirable for the state to go on record. The way is open for amendment and improvement in later years, and at least Pennsylvania begins an experiment which may pave the way ultimately for the modification of the worst features of the present almshouse system or for its abandonment.

The Nature of an Oath

IN 1685 Lord Jeffries, chief justice of England, charged a witness at the trial of Lady Lisle. He said: "The God of Heaven may justly strike thee into eternal flames and make thee drop into the bottomless pit of fire and brimstone, if thou offer to deviate the least from the truth and nothing but the truth." Two hundred and fifty years have gone by since then, and theology has seen many changes, but the same test of the credibility of a witness was applied a few months ago in a Connecticut court. A pervert who had assaulted a child of eight was set at liberty because the victim could not state in open court that she believed God would punish her in this world and the next if she told a lie!

In New Hampshire recently a boy of eight was not allowed to testify because he did not have a "sense of moral responsibility." In Alabama a little girl's testimony was refused, although she was a regular attendant at church and Sunday school, because she thought that God would put her in jail if she told a lie. The court ruled that she did not have enough theology to be a witness. In Arkansas a boy of ten was needed as a witness in a murder case. The states attorney put him on the stand and the following conversation took place:

Q. Do you know what it means when you hold up your hand and take the oath?
A. Yes, sir.
Q. What is it?
A. To tell the truth.
Q. Would it be wrong not to tell the truth?
A. Yes, sir.
Q. If you do not tell the truth, what will happen to you?
A. I don't know, sir.

The court ruled that there was not enough religion in these answers to show that the boy was qualified as a witness. As a result, important evidence bearing on an atrocious crime was excluded.

These cases are typical of many. Crimes against children, particularly criminal assaults upon young children, appear to be increasing. The failure of the police to apprehend the offenders, and the insufficiency of punishment in case of conviction, may contribute to this condition, but a more serious difficulty is that testimony in many cases cannot be presented to the jury because the only witness to the crime is the little child itself. And the child is prevented from giving its testimony because of the antiquated and frequently pernicious rule of law that no one can be a witness who "does not know the nature and obligation of an oath." To qualify the child must understand and believe in a God who will punish a lie with eternal damnation.

The situation is inexcusable, particularly since the remedy is so simple. Eliminate the theological test. Allow the child to testify if it shows that it can remember what had occurred and is able to give an accurate account of the occurrence. The court and jury may be assumed to be competent to tell whether a child is just babbling, or repeating what it has been told to say, or really describing what it has seen or experienced. Truth-telling is a matter of training and not a matter of theological belief.

Some courts have already recognized this, and interpret the theological requirements in a sensible way. In California, for example, the statute regulating the qualification of witnesses reads like this: "No person, child or adult, shall be excluded from the witness stand on account of his opinions on matters of religious belief."

In a recent case, in California, a boy of four was put on the stand. He was asked, "What happens to little boys who do not tell the truth? What do they do to little boys who do not tell the truth." The child answered, "They put them in jail." The court ruled that he could testify, and said, "A child who understands that he will be punished on earth is competent; although he knows nothing of punishment after death. To qualify a child under ten years of age upon the score of his moral responsibility, it is sufficient that he understands that it is his duty to tell the truth and that he will somehow be punished if he doesn't."

In Virginia the accused was indicted for assault and battery upon a girl of six. The witnesses were the victim and her brother, aged eight. The child said she did not understand what was meant by "the obligation of an oath." She was asked, "What would happen to you if you did not tell the truth?" She replied, "Go to the bad man." The court ruled that she had sufficient intelligence to qualify as a witness.

While some of the leading jurisdictions in the country are trying to break away from ancient rules of law based upon sixteenth-century theology, only one state has actually made statutory provision for such testimony. Section 392 of the New York Code of Criminal Procedure provides that;

> Whenever in any criminal proceedings a child actually, or apparently, under the age of twelve; offered as a witness, does not in the opinion of the court or magistrate understand the nature of an oath, the evidence of such child may be received though not given under oath, if, in the opinion of the court or magistrate, such child is possessed of sufficient intelligence to justify the reception of the evidence. But no person shall be held or convicted of an offense upon such testimony alone.

This statute is based upon the English "Prevention of Cruelty to Children" act of 1889, which was readopted and made more stringent in 1904 and 1908. The English act provides that where a child, in the opinion of the court, is of sufficient intelligence to justify the reception of the evidence, and understands the duty of telling the truth, the testimony of the child shall be received even though not given under oath. But no one is to be convicted on such testimony alone.

Both statutes allow the child to testify. This enables the jury to weigh the evidence for what it is worth. In this manner the link in the chain of evidence which is so often missing is brought into court. No sexual pervert can escape simply because his victim is legally gagged. An increase in convictions is assured. But the problem is not fully solved by these statutes, which allow the offender to escape if his victim is the *only* witness against him. This loophole should be plugged. Most of the assaults upon children take place where there are no other persons present. In such cases the New York statute proves inadequate. The testimony of the child-victim should be admitted without any let or hindrance. The jury can pass adequately upon its value. If in their opinion the criminal should be convicted upon the child's testimony alone, the statute should not prevent the conviction.

ALBERT LEVITT

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EDUCATION

Summer School South of the Rio Grande

PERHAPS the most interesting and significant summer school to be held this year upon the North American continent is the *Escuela de Verano* of the National University of Mexico, which opened on July 5. Both the interest and significance of this summer school lie in the fact that it was established, and is maintained, at the expense of the Mexican government primarily for the benefit of students from the United States. Summer vacations are unknown in the Mexican school system; so there is little native need for the summer sessions that have become so usual in the United States.

The expressed purpose of the *Escuela de Verano*, as stated in the official announcement of courses, is "to offer an opportunity to foreigners, and especially to North Americans who are engaged in teaching Spanish, to perfect and broaden their knowledge of the language, and also to visit the Mexican Republic and become familiar with the customs and life of a country of Latin traditions." The real purpose, left unexpressed, is to create a feeling of international friendliness between the two North American republics, impossible without a closer intellectual relationship and understanding than now exist.

The summer school came into existence in June, 1921. It grew out of two separate movements merging in a common object—the establishment of a system of exchange scholarships between the National University of Mexico and the various universities north of the Rio Grande. The first movement was started by Dr. Chavez, in charge of the *Escuela de Altos Estudios*, or graduate school, of the National University. In attempting to provide advanced courses in education and psychology leading to Ph. D. degrees, Dr. Chavez came up against the need for a closer relationship between the scholars of Mexico and those of the United States, and suggested the establishment of exchange scholarships, or professorships. Contemporary with Dr. Chavez's suggestion but independent of it, came a movement of a group of American scholars living in Mexico, led by Dr. O. W. E. Cook, for the same general purpose, but with a slightly different emphasis. This movement, of the two, was the first to find definite expression, when in February, 1920, the First Mexican-American Trade Conference, held in Mexico City, passed a resolution providing for the appointment of a committee on the interchange of scholarships between the United States and Mexico, under the direction of the American Chamber of Commerce of Mexico City. The committee was composed of Dr. Cook, secretary of the newly founded Mexican-American Scholarship Foundation, and Señor Gumaro Villalobos, a prominent political leader from Jalisco, which state he represented in the Chamber of Deputies, a man of broad, liberal education.

Their first plan, a rather elaborate one, provided for the placing of Mexican students in each of the universities of rank in the United States. In exchange for this courtesy the Mexican Government in its turn was to grant to each university three professorships, carrying stipends sufficient to maintain recipients while they carried on original research in any of the fields in which Mexico offers unique opportunity—Spanish-American history, archaeology, anthropology, and sociology.

The committee were sent to America to form some idea as to the feasibility of this tentative plan. They visited several of the western universities, and in the end became convinced that the time was not yet ripe for so extensive a system of interchange, in part because of the ignorance among American students of the wonderful opportunities offered by Mexico for research, and in part because of the difficulties which American professors find in securing leave of absence for a whole year.

But hard upon this disappointing discovery came a more hopeful one. In the University of Utah, Señor Villalobos found already on foot a plan which seemed to suggest an excellent temporary substitute for his original one. This university had planned, as a part of its regular summer school, to send a party of its students especially interested in the study of Spanish to Mexico City for study, the party to be under the charge and direction of Dr. George Oscar Russell, head of the school of romance languages of that university. Señor Villalobos, being told that every summer vacation found numbers of teachers of Spanish going to Spain for study, was quick to seize the implied suggestion, and to propose to his government that some inducement be offered to draw such students to Mexico. His recommendation was as quickly accepted, and President Obregon issued a proclamation calling for free railroad transportation to and from the border to all Americans coming to Mexico for study.

The Experiment Takes Shape

The National University threw its resources wholeheartedly into the plan, and in an incredibly short time, summer school courses were organized, teachers engaged, and catalogues and announcements sent out. So short indeed was the time between the first thought of a summer school and the date of the opening that the announcements did not reach further than Texas and contiguous states. Notwithstanding all this, the response in number of students was most gratifying. Beside the party from Utah, twenty-four in number, there were more than forty American students enrolled in this first *Escuela de Verano*, most of whom who had already planned to come to Mexico before hearing of the special opportunities to be opened to foreigners, but gladly took advantage of the short courses offered by the university. The courtesies of the university were extended also to a party of independent scholars and students from the University of Arizona, who engaged directly in research work in their respective fields. Among them was Professor Byron Cummings, who has remained in Mexico to carry on his work in archaeology. For more than a year he worked with Dr. Gamio, head of the government work in archaeology, in

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the excavation of the ancient pyramid at Tlalpam, the most important piece of archaeological research now in progress on this continent.

The summer school was first in charge of Antonio Adalid, who had but recently returned to Mexico after being in exile since the Revolution, a man particularly fitted for such a task, both by nature and by his long training in American and English schools. Associated with him was Professor Tomás Montaño of the faculty of the National University. When José Vasconcelos resigned his office as rector of the university to take the portfolio of minister of education in President Obregon's cabinet, he called Señor Adalid to his aid in the great task, which had just been undertaken, of federalizing the public school system, and the direction of the summer school fell to Pedro Henriquez Ureña, once of the faculty of the University of Minnesota.

The Second Season

The success of the first summer school south of the Rio Grande, and the interest in the experiment aroused among the teachers and students of Spanish throughout the United States, were attested by more than two thousand letters received by the authorities of the university, inquiring about continuation of the plan for the summer of 1922. Though the university was in no way prepared to take care of a great number of foreigners in addition to maintaining its regular courses during the summer, it set itself to make the best use possible of the interest thus aroused, and to provide a second summer school better in every respect than the first. The financial inducement was, however, reduced from full to half fare from the border and back.

The direction of this second *Escuela de Verano* fell to Vincente Lombardo Toledano, director of the National Preparatory School of the university, who drew around himself a faculty made up of the foremost scholars and men of letters in Mexico. The list of lecturers includes such names as Dr. Pedro Henriquez Ureña, preeminent authority on all Latin-American literature; Carlos Diáz Dufoo, most prominent political essayist in Mexico; Gamboa, foremost novelist, and since the death of Toussaint, the foremost critic of Mexico; Salamon de la Selva, brilliant young poet from Nicaragua; Frederico de Onis of Columbia University, the greatest Spanish scholar in America, if not in the world; and Dr. G. O. Russell, professor of romance languages of the University of Utah; besides such eminent men from the regular staff of the National University as Professors Garza, Adalid, Montaña, and Mena.

Notwithstanding the careful planning and preparation made for caring for the American students, the Second Summer School brought many surprises that strained the resources of the university to the limit. The number of students itself was greater than was expected; the registration reached 492 against 67 of the preceding year. There were entirely unforeseen demands for courses for which no provision had been made, and for which Mexico could provide no experienced teachers. The School of Foreign Service of Georgetown University sent a group of forty students under the charge of Professor R. S. McElwee. No such courses as desired by this group had been contemplated. But the most disconcerting surprise of all lay in the character of the students who presented themselves in the various classes.

All the courses had been planned for serious students with at least a fair speaking knowledge of Spanish, such as made up the body of the previous year. But a small percent of the Second Summer School group fulfilled that expectation. Many of them came frankly as tourists, with no intention of serious work. Few of the number possessed more than an elementary knowledge of class-exercise Spanish, while a large proportion were innocent of even that scant preparation.

Confronted with such a student body, the authorities were brought to dismay that amounted almost to panic. Teachers were helpless before students who understood nothing of what was said to them. But with the remarkable adaptability, good nature, and courtesy that illustrates the determination of the Mexican authorities to serve and please their guests, they hurriedly sought out the best teachers to be found in government schools, and organized courses in conversation and grammar adapted to the need of all classes of students, beginning, intermediate, and advanced, all the while maintaining the advanced courses originally planned for the benefit of those prepared to take them.

If the Mexican authorities felt any disappointment in the lack of preparation and serious application to class work on the part of the American students, they did not betray their feelings in any way, but were untiring in their efforts to bring them to a knowledge and understanding of present day Mexico by giving them an opportunity to see for themselves its great natural beauties, to know the mingled tragedy and romance of its history, to view its tremendous undeveloped resources, and to understand the great opportunity open to American scholars in various lines of research.

With this end in view, almost daily excursions were made under the direction of some member of the faculty, to the various places of preeminent interest within the city itself, or to the many interesting outlying towns that can be reached by street car, while week-end trips were made to various cities of the republic—Cuernavaca, Toluca, Pueblo, Vera Cruz, and Guadalajara. In each case a reduction of fifty per cent in railroad fare was granted, and the other expenses, such as hotel fare, were reduced to the minimum. Perhaps those who planned these excursions realized that it was in such extra-classroom pursuits that the real purpose of the *Escuela de Verano* was to be realized.

From the announcement of courses for the coming term, one notes that the organization has been perfected to a degree that insures greater classroom efficiency than has been possible under the loose organization of the past. The length of the session has been shortened from two *ciclos*, extending from the middle of June to the middle of September, to one *ciclo* extending from July 5 to August 17. A fixed registration fee is now required, the number of courses for which one may register has been limited, and the credits allowed for each course more nearly standardized. Yet one notes also that the same generous hospitality is extended to all classes of American students, and the same liberal opportunities offered for extra classroom work that has characterized the *Escuela de Verano* of the past. All of which indicates that the Mexican-American Summer School has come to stay, that the results of the past two years have justified the hopes of those who worked to bring it about. It is certain that the hundreds of Americans who have enjoyed the hospitality of the Mexican government have come home with an abiding memory of Mexican courtesy and kindness, a new sympathy with Mexican problems and aspirations, and a greater appreciation of the wealth of material that awaits the American scholar in Mexico.

FANNIE E. RATCHFORD

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Academic Bolshevism

THE new president of the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College is supported by every farm and labor organization in the state and is opposed by the American Legion and the Ku Klux Klan. In politics he has been identified with the Non-Partisan League and other organizations of farmers and wage-earners; not, like other politically inclined college presidents, with the Democratic or the Republican party. The situation is so un-American that patriots ran up a red flag on the college flag-pole, and militia had to protect the new president from the forces of democracy and law and order.

The outstanding effectiveness of the president as a teacher is not questioned, but the college is disgraced by the fact that he has no degree. If he were at the head of one of the Danish schools that lead the world in education of farm folk, nobody would think of asking whether he had a degree or not; but already he has exemplified the perils of entrusting an American school to an unstandardized man. The Federated Press says that his plan is "to take over the college farm of 1,000 acres, and run it as a community enterprise, giving students practical experience. He will make the farm support the student body so that poor students can attend and earn their way by working on the farm. Meals will be prepared by the home economics students. Meat will be raised, slaughtered and served by students. The extension service will be pushed and the farmer taught the value of cooperative marketing and purchasing."

Training like that might be good for mere farmers and farmers' wives, but it is quite out of place in a college. To give college credits for farm work is atrocious and intolerable; credits should be given only for typewriting and disciplines like that. The distinction is clear: farm work cannot be done in a white collar. Cooperative marketing might, but even that lacks the dignity and prestige of Business Administration. The wheat, cotton and produce buyers are united in defence of our liberties and culture and doubtless will get the president.

This Sort of Thing

(*The following is about half of a harangue actually delivered before a high school audience in a city of several thousand people. The address was taken by two stenographers without the knowledge of the orator. As a verbatim sample of the sort of stuff high-school pupils are frequently fed upon it should prove enlightening.* THE EDITOR.)

NUMBERS of years it has been my pleasant duty to stand before young people and I don't think I am very much older than most of you people. That may create some laughter but once somebody said we are just as old as you think you are, and good night, from the way some people act, they are not out from their baby clothes.

Now you hear a good bit of moralizing from this platform. We hear it from the pulpit too often, we hear it in the school, we hear it in our home, until we get tired of Sunday school teaching. Well, there is something wrong with the boy who gets tired of listening to good advice. I want you boys to get this now, a man who will not listen to wisdom, Solomon says, is brutish. It doesn't make any difference whether you listen to Chester or Albert or Mary, Ruth or somebody else, or to one of your teachers or to anybody, if you listen to the truth. What makes the difference where you get your truth so it is truth.

Now you come to school for a purpose I hope, and if you don't come for a purpose, I want to ask you a question. I want you to listen. If you don't come to school for a purpose, what do you come for? I am not going to ask anybody to answer that because I am afraid some of the boys back there whose parents have better sense than they have, would spoil it by saying, "I come because I have to." . . .

NOW there is a good many things this morning that I want to call attention to particularly. Now I want to talk about some secrets. Now don't get worried, I am not going to tell anything about anybody. There is a good many things that might be said that would cause some uneasiness but that is not what I am going to try to put before you this morning. You know the secret, now get this. A secret is that which nobody knows except yourself. . . . Secret means a hidden thing—secret treasure. As long as you have a treasure and share it with somebody, then it becomes property that is no longer secret. Now this secret that I am going to talk about I want you people particularly to heed these things, and there is several reasons for it. In the first place a gentleman in a strict sense of the word and a lady, never sow broadcast a thing which comes to their knowledge. In other words they do not gossip. I want to repeat that again. A gentleman and a lady will not repeat nor gossip. . . . Now you will ask me to define a gentlemen, and you will ask me to define a lady. Well I'll do it for this purpose at this time. It might be different some other time for another purpose.

Gentleman is made up of two words, and so is gentlewoman. Now the first word is an adjective and belongs to both the man and the woman. Now if a thing is gentle, or if a person is gentle it means that they are the opposite of everything else that is not gentle.

Now to distinguish between the person who is not a gentleman and from the person who is not a lady. If you want to be a gentleman you will be different from the roughneck, you must be different from the loud mouthed, flabby, coarse and boisterous person. Now ask yourself the question, "to what extent am I a lady?" Now a gentleman, applying to the gentle man and woman, to be gentle in every sense of the word places you above the petty little narrow-minded, weak-kneed and silly, easy provoked, flighty person. To be gentle means to be reserved at all times, under all circumstances, to hold your self-control, to have respect for your parents or principal or persons who are defective, and under all circumstances you must show the manners which will distinguish you and cause people to believe that you are a gentleman.

There is a few things I want to call attention to—conduct about the building. That is the first thing. If you are cultured, if you are properly educated, if you have the necessary training . . . if you are going to conduct yourself as gentlemanly, quietly, reserved, with dignity, not boisterous, loud mouthed and all those things you will walk through the halls and corridors to and from class with propriety, with reserve.

Every girl, every boy in this building has the ability and knows better than they always do. Now this is the point. When you come into the building assume the attitude of a gentleman. Now it is vulgar to be seen on the street with

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chewing gum. It is so considered by the best cultured and polished people. Let alone tobacco, cigarettes and cigar smoking. If you get a book on manners, we have one in our library, no man, I should have to revise that and include ladies, no lady should ever be seen in public smoking. Now in school you have been hearing some things on this little book on manners. Do you watch the clock? Do you work without respect of time? There is no such a thing as time except in measure. It is merely a measure, it is not material, it is merely a measure, so don't watch the clock.

Now there is a little secret that I want to tell you. Remember it won't be a secret after I tell you. Sometimes when there are parents or other people in the office on particular business, I have seen boys and girls butt in. You know we have a society that is called the butt-in-ski society. I wonder if there are any boys or girls that have joined this society. Or if the door is closed, it is closed for a purpose, and if it is necessary to break in there where private affairs are going on, it is best to knock on the door. You would not go into somebody's home and butt in. There might be some instances where a lady would break into the back door upon a neighbor, or one of you boys might call on your best girl and might be so hasty you would forget yourself. What would you do if you would go into the city of New York and call upon Judge —, would you just go into the house and announce yourself? Now listen boys and girls, I mention these things to you because you ought to know them. Conduct yourself with decorous propriety, study the book on manners, learn how to conduct yourself. Some of the boys and girls act like they were beast hunters, every time you leave a classroom you just bolt out of the door like the old scratch was after you. There is no excuse for that. We have plenty of time to move from place to place. Then the stairway. Some of you boys go down that stairway so that if you would fall you would break your neck. Now not only break a neck but you might tear off an ear or knock out a tooth. Don't loaf like some of them do; it is unnecessary for me to mention the teachers' conduct. If they do not act properly it is your business to report that. It isn't my opinion that they do anything that is wrong.

THE Commencement season is safely past, once more. Commencement orators performed the usual feats of pointing with pride and viewing with alarm. The intelligence test people and those who fear such things as "the rising tide of color" showed they had a very considerable influence with the orators. It is pleasurable, therefore, to be able to report that President Alexander Meiklejohn, of Amherst College, speaking at Holyoke, showed a real freedom from the hysterias of many college men. He said:

"A democracy is an educated people. America is facing, as no other people has faced before, a fundamental moral conflict, a clash between two moral problems, the law of taste—that is, of excellence which recognizes values—and the law of which Anglo-Saxons speak as the law of sharing the good things of life, the principle of democracy.

"We are tired of the world that gives good things to the few. We are determined that everybody should have a chance at excellence, whether it be political or spiritual. I believe that democracy means education. It is the only thing you can give to the people on a large scale to help them to get out of life what it has to give.

". . . Shall we educate one-tenth of the people? The idea doesn't go in democratic America to-day. America is trying to educate her youth. We cannot at present turn back. Shall we succeed? The chances are all against us, or rather very strongly against us. The chances are that it will not be done by us or in America for a long time yet. We don't know whether it can be done or not, but it is our game. America is attempting a task on a level never seen before. This people is going forward in the greatest venture of the human spirit to make the common standard that of excellence. Civilization after civilization is making its way towards the goal. The human spirit will not have it otherwise."

IN SIGNING the bills repealing the obnoxious Lusk laws, Governor Alfred E. Smith, of New York, filed the following memorandum, explaining his reasons for destroying those laws: "I am affixing my signature to the two acts which have for their purpose the repeal of the so-called Lusk Laws. I am satisfied that they should not remain upon the statute books of this state, because they are repugnant to the fundamentals of American democracy. Under the laws repealed teachers, in order to exercise their honorable calling, were in effect compelled to hold opinions as to governmental matters deemed by a state officer consistent with loyalty; and, further, no private school could be maintained in this state unless its teachings were similarly satisfactory to certain officials of the state. Freedom of opinion and freedom of speech were by these laws unduly shackled, and an unjust discrimination was made against the members of a great profession. In signing these bills, I firmly believe that I am vindicating the principle that, within the limits of the penal law, every citizen may speak and teach what he believes."

"THE WORLD is too much with us," sang Wordsworth a century ago. "The world is too much for us," sing the deans and presidents of Ohio Colleges, if we may judge by the topics suggested for discussion and printed on the program of the twenty-fifth annual conference held recently in Columbus. Among these topics were the following: "Are some of our college problems the harvest of kindergartenism and other individualistic training? Is it advisable to make real to the student questions of national and international importance? If so, how can it be done? What shall be done with the National Student Forum? How shall the freshman be kept busy? What shall be our attitude toward modernism in the college? What shall be done about student self-government? What action shall be taken concerning women's smoking?"

"THE POWER of the teaching profession rests upon ideas. Freshness, soundness, sureness, and richness of teaching grow out of ideas and experiences which have the same qualities. In no other occupation must ideas be replenished as in teaching. Educational progress is an evolution. Improvements appear constantly. The alert teacher must know about them. He cannot rest content to have others enjoying a knowledge which he does not share." The foregoing paragraph was not printed in New York. It is from a bulletin of the Massachusetts Department of Education, Division of University Extension. According to this bulletin, 30,000 students, many of them teachers in the public schools of the state, are sharing in this "educational awakening" and having their "ideas replenished."

ATLANTA has a school of social work for colored social workers, connected with Morehouse College and established in 1919. Professor E. Franklin Frazier, of Morehouse College, is director; and the school has a staff of nine regular instructors, with a number of special lecturers from Atlanta and elsewhere. The courses cover most of the regular lines of study usually found in such schools. Much emphasis is placed on training in practical casework, and the course is one year in length. The students do field work under the direction of local social agencies.

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BOOK REVIEWS

The Plumb Plan for Industry

INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY, *by Glenn E. Plumb and W. G. Roylance. B. W. Huebsch. 351 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THERE are two problems of our industrial order which surpass all the others in magnitude and in difficulty. They concern the distribution of the product and the status of the wage-earner. The former is twofold: that of employer versus employe; that of producer versus consumer. Capital frequently oppresses labor, and labor not infrequently deals unfairly with capital. Labor alone, or capital alone, or a combination of the two, sometimes possesses sufficient economic power to compel the consumer to pay extortionate prices.

Various theories have been advanced to define and reconcile the just claims of employer and employe; few if any plans have been proposed which include a convincing, or even plausible, method of doing the same thing for consumer and producer. While the Rochdale cooperative societies take care of the consumer, they leave both the remuneration and the status of the wage upon the present basis.

No solution will be worthy of the name or, indeed, worthy of serious consideration which does not meet both these problems. Between consumer and producer, as well as between employer and employe, conflict must give way to cooperation. In neither case can the end be attained through platitudes about "production for use instead of for profit." The profit motive cannot be eliminated. We want production for use, indeed, but we cannot have it unless it be made profitable. Altruism cannot become a complete substitute for the driving and alluring influence of pecuniary gain.

Possibly the greatest merit of Industrial Democracy, by Glenn E. Plumb and W. G. Roylance, is that it squarely faces all the foregoing requirements. It aims at an efficient and just distribution between employer and employe, and between producer and consumer; at giving reasonable scope to the pecuniary motive; and at a new and adequate status for the wage-earner.

While the scheme of industrial reorganization set forth in this volume is essentially the "Plumb Plan" which the principal author proposed a few years ago for the railroads, it is more elastic, more comprehensive, better developed and more fundamentally supported. It is applicable to all enterprises having the corporate form of organization. In order to adapt it to the varying features of the most important corporations, the author divides industries into four groups: (a) national public utilities; (b) state and municipal utilities; (c) all industries based on grants, or exploitation of natural resources, or having a natural or economic monopoly; (d) all other industries.

For the purposes of a brief review the plan can best be considered in relation to an industry which is not a public utility. A corporation would be organized which would issue both capital stock and bonds. The former would bear a limited, preferred and cumulative rate of dividend. The bonds would pay a lower rate of interest than the stock, but would carry a prior claim upon assets. Thus far the plan contains nothing essentially new. A wholly original element appears in the proposal to give every employe of the corporation "labor stock," of no par value, non-transferable, and valid only while the holder is in the employ of the concern. This stock would include the power to vote in the conduct of the business. Each employe would have 'labor stock" valued for voting and profit-sharing purposes at the amount of his annual wage or salary. The holder of labor stock would have a voting power equal to that of the owner of capital stock whose annual dividend equaled the annual wage of the former. For example, the man whose wage was $1,500 a year would have as large a voice in the management as the man who received that amount of annual dividend.

Wages and salaries would be paid before dividends. After all charges, including cumulative dividends had been met, the remaining revenues would be divided into two equal parts—one half "corporate surplus," the other "public surplus." The former would be expended according to the desires of the stockholders, both capital and labor. If distributed as extra dividends, or profits, it would be allotted in proportion to the *annual investment* of the stockholder. For example, the capital stockholder whose dividend was $1,500 would receive the same amount of the surplus profits as the employe whose annual wage was $1,500. Profit sharing would be on the same basis as voting power. The half known as "public surplus" would be expended for improving or extending the plant, for the retirement of capital, or for the reduction of prices.

Let us see how the plan meets the fundamental problems noted above. Quite properly it restricts the reward of the capitalist to a rate of interest sufficient to cover risk, to retain existing capital and to attract new capital. The "corporation surplus" is divided between capital and labor on the basis of the regular income received by each. If capital is to get any of the surplus, this is a much fairer method than that which takes as a basis of distribution the wage of the employe and the *total* investment of the capitalist; for the annual contribution of the latter to the product is measured by his capital dividend, not by his capital investment, by what he takes out each year, not by what he puts in and keeps in. In the second place, the status of the worker is improved, indeed, revolutionized, when he is given a vote in management equal to that of the capitalist, as measured by and in proportion to their respective incomes, their wages and dividends respectively. Finally, the interests of the consumer are safeguarded by the provision that he must, indirectly or directly, immediately or ultimately, get half the surplus profits.

Nevertheless, a troublesome question arises. Inasmuch as the voting power of the employes would always exceed that of the capital owners, would not the former be strongly tempted to lift wages to such a high level that no surplus would ever exist to be shared with either the capitalist or the consumer? This question throws doubt upon the efficacy of the plan to reconcile the interests of employer and employe and of consumer and producer.

Whether or not it can be satisfactorily answered, the plan of industrial reorganization set forth in Industrial Democracy deserves close and sympathetic study by all persons who realize the fundamental defects of our industrial system as now operated. No defender of the present autocratic control of industry has been able to suggest a method of eliminating the wasteful and dangerous antagonisms of our industrial system. In all probability none can be suggested. But it is not improbable that checks, or balances, or modifications can be devised to meet the formidable difficulty, raised above, of selfish and demoralizing employe control.

The book is well written, with clearness, directness and simplicity. Those of us who had the privilege of knowing Glenn E. Plumb, earnestly and greatly hope that his posthumous work will not merely be read and studied by tens of thousands, but that it will point the way to a satisfactory solution of our most difficult and fundamental industrial problems.

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The Mysteries of Children's Minds

CHILD PSYCHOLOGY, *by Vilhelm Rasmussen. Alfred A. Knopf. 3 vols. App. 150 pp. each. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

OF these three volumes on Child Psychology, the first is devoted to the soul life of a child in its first four years. It is based largely upon the author's careful observation of his own children and evidences his belief in the doctrine of freedom for the evolution of the soul, by the removal of all unnecessary pressure. He emphasizes the importance of understanding child nature, particularly in view of the increased social activities for children, and there is evidence of his desire for a wide particular knowledge of children to supplement general impressions, and an implied distinction between the place of experiment and of speculation in the management of early problems.

The second and third volumes deal with the kindergarten child, presenting the author's observations on the conception of its life and mental powers, with special stress upon thought, imagination, feeling, will and morale. There is definite opposition to regarding the kindergarten as a school, instead of a play place for training, and hence there is a preference for the Montessori type, rather than the Froebellian kindergarten. With the present tendency to use kindergartens more freely, it is interesting to note the statement that a child from a good home does not require the kindergarten, and, indeed, Mr. Rasmussen advocates keeping children out of school until they are seven years of age, because of the retarding effect of school life. Ample consideration is given to the question of physical and mental health and the influence of the social status upon the development of each. Considerable space is devoted to the discussion of drawing.

The Binet-Simon tests Mr. Rasmussen considers useful as measures of intelligence, because, in his estimation, the evolution of the child's mind parallels the development of attention and memory.

The burden of his exposition is that education clips the wings of childhood and there is a definite risk that the wings may be clipped so short that they become useless for flying. The three volumes might readily have been combined into one, as the material presented has a definite harmony. The value of the series lies more in awakening an interest in the more careful study and observation of children than in any practical program that is advocated. It may be said to possess a certain degree of stimulation to the intelligent inquirer into the mental habits of children during the pre-school age period.

The suggestion that kindergartens possess a retarding influence, in consequence of which children of a better type of homes need not be exposed so freely to their effect, deserves further thought. Patently, however, this is not an objection which is applicable for the vast majority of children, whose homes are far inferior to the poorest kindergartens.

IRA S. WILE, M. D.

Ethics and Ethical Culture

THREE TYPES OF PRACTICAL ETHICAL MOVEMENTS OF THE PAST HALF CENTURY, *by Leo Jacobs. 184 pp. Macmillan Co. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

IN the opening sentence of that excellent book, The Acquisitive Society, Mr. Tawney calls attention to the characteristic virtue of Englishmen, "their power of sustained practical activity," with its accompanying vice, "a reluctance to test the quality of that activity by reference to principles." Nor are these characteristics of Englishmen alone: thinking occurs only when a problem is squarely faced, and—well, it is easier for all of us to walk around an unpleasant problem and pass it by with a shrug.

The author of the present highly-suggestive little volume invites those interested both in the social program of our churches and in the social settlement movement to do some thinking regarding the adequacy of the ethical principles upon which they are based.

The first of the three movements discussed is the social gospel of the churches, with particular reference to the Religious Ethical movement known as Christian Socialism, dating from the activities of Maurice and Kingsley in the middle of the last century. Of this movement based upon the common fatherhood of God, Mr. Jacobs says:

> The man who starts with the doctrine that all men are brothers because they come from the same Father soon makes a distinction between the brothers. . . . No matter how moral you may be, if you are not of my church you shall not get the preferment. This is the philosophy of likeness. It rates ethical conduct below religious conformity.

The fifty pages devoted to the second of the three movements, the Social Ethical movement, will well repay reading just now when the function of the social settlement is being re-examined. Mr. Jacobs' major criticism here concerns the weakness of adopting democracy as a method—however sound it may be as a principle. The object of the settlement becomes in consequence of this policy that of "keeping men alike in order to assure human solidarity."

> It is hard to reconcile the process of eliminating differences and of simultaneously stimulating and instigating art and culture. The Settlement, in attempting to do this, virtually tries to suppress differences with one hand and with the other to emphasize what it chooses to call tendencies to likeness, but which are nevertheless most profound sources of difference. . . . Now there are two fundamental errors here: first, the assumption that differences are unsocial forces is an erroneous assumption; second, the theory that culture eliminates differences is a false theory.

In the face of the practical exigencies of welfare work in a great city, the author's strictures upon "institutionalism" in settlements, though not without substantial justification, appear unnecessarily academic.

In the third section of the book Mr. Jacobs offers a sympathetic study of the Ethical Culture movement, with which he is identified personally. This "pure" ethical movement, i. e., concerned primarily neither with religious dogma nor with material well-being, he endorses with Messianic fervor as containing "the hope of the moral reform of our social order." Others, however—notably those with less of a leaning toward Kant and more toward Dewey—will balk at accepting the false antithesis which the very "purity" of the Ethical Culture ideal would force upon us in its insistence that there is no alternative between hard rigoristic ethics on the one hand and sheer moral caprice on the other.

R. S. LYND

Boxing the Educational Compass

THE REFORM OF EDUCATION, *by Giovanni Gentile. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 250 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

PINEY WOODS AND ITS STORY, *by Laurence C. Jones. Fleming H. Revell Co. 151 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

MODERN DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE, *by John Adams. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 302 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE NEW PSYCHOLOGY AND THE TEACHER *by H. Crichton Miller. Thomas Seltzer. 225 pp. Price $1.60 postpaid of The Survey.*

IT'S a long cry from the first of these books to the second. Gentile is an Italian philosopher and teacher. He belongs in the Hegelian tradition. He would reform education by destroying what his friend, Croce, calls the "chaotic pedagogy of the positivistic school" and by setting up in its place a "dialectic of the spirit's development"; all of which means that education must be cut off from its rootage in the actual experiences of childhood and made a matter of life-long searching in the mazes of thought: man must be free, and it is only in the ranges of thought that he can be assured of freedom!

The principal of the Piney Woods Country Life School, on the other hand, lives and works in the backwoods of Mississippi; he and the other teachers in the school are face to face with the crudest materials of human life; he has built a school and a pedagogy out of these raw materials; and he finds whatever justification he needs for this presumption in endless reflection upon the New Testament and an occasional quotation from the positivist, Socrates.

Here are the uttermost poles of educational doctrine: for Gentile education is "free spiritual becoming," and the "apparent multiplicity of educational forms" is resolved in "the immultiplicable unity of this becoming, outside of which nothing is truly conceivable." At Piney Woods, education seeks to build "a simple little country life school that will carry the gospel of better farming, better living, better schools and churches to those who live far back from the main-traveled roads."

To be sure, if Gentile and Jones could get together on some intermediate table-land, they might be able to see that they both are interested in the same thing, and both are occasionally lost:

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Gentile is lost, now and again, in the mazes of his own arguments about becoming; Jones, in the endless details of building houses and barns and organizing his crude materials into something having an approximation to form.

Next to them stands the greatly detached spirit of John Adams, formerly professor of education in the University of London, himself once the leader of the Herbartians in England, and cousin germane of the Hegelians. Once, Professor Adams could say of a certain Herbartian principle: "It serves the purposes of the teacher so admirably that we ought to wish it were true whether it is or not." But no more. Now, he is of the experimentalists, as are most of the erstwhile American Herbartians. In this book he has gathered up brief studies of standards and mental tests, the Dalton plan, the Gary system, the "play" schools, the project method; and he pays his respects to the uses of psychoanalysis in education.

The best brief discussion of this latter subject is to be found in Miller's New Psychology and the Teacher. Here the teacher will find "psychoanalysis" handled by a mind that has mastered the vocabularies, the mechanisms and the general lingo and has come back without surrendering. This is a rare achievement. The psychological area is pretty sharply dismembered, these days, and most writers must take their places securely within some fragment of the whole: each must be loyal to his fragment and contemptuous of the rest. It is a happy augury of better times ahead that a few writers are now beginning to realize that truth may spend an occasional moment, at least, in the company of the outcasts.

Nothing is more possible, today, than the finding of educational "nostrums" for the cure of all complaints. Too many teachers are devotees of some one of these fragmentary systems. Gentile is right in this, at least, that no educational program can possibly stand that erects some fragmentary or narrow interpretation of humanity into a final and complete exposition. The only safety for the teacher and student is to be found in a wide reading of many books, rounding in as many phases of the subject as time and energy will permit. The present list gives two extreme pictures and two constructive interpretations covering the ground between the poles.

J. K. H.

The Why and How of Preventive Medicine

AN INTRODUCTION TO THE PRACTICE OF PREVENTIVE MEDICINE, *by J. G. Fitzgerald, M.D. C. V. Mosby Co. 826 pp. Price $7.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THERE is no plethora of comprehensive text books on preventive medicine. The excellent books by Rosenau, Park, Chapin and Vaughan have stood almost alone in this field during the last decade. This new book on the Practice of Preventive Medicine will, therefore, be read with eagerness by health officers and all those interested in public health work.

Preventive medicine is not standardized, in fact is in a state of flux. Epidemiology and methods of control are changing with the evolution of new weapons and broader social policy. The older books require constant revision in order to keep up to date, and a new writer has an advantage in starting afresh and an opportunity to present our knowledge with sounder classifications and with a more logical sequence. Dr. Fitzgerald has seized this advantage and improved his opportunity by producing a book which is a real contribution to the literature of preventive medicine.

Dr. Fitzgerald's avowed purpose is to encourage the practising physician to put more emphasis on prevention and to take greater part in the work of health departments. Here he is on sound ground, for a great part of the details of any public health program of the future must be carried out by the practising physicians. He faces courageously the problem that while all the people are entitled to proper medical care, preventive advice and health supervision, yet only a part receive it. He does not advocate state medicine or health insurance, and he frankly dislikes nationalization of the profession. He puts forward sane ideas for the socialization of the medical profession within itself, whereby decent, necessary medical service and health supervision would be furnished by the practising physicians to all the people.

The classification of disease is especially logical and the author has maintained a fine sense of proportion in giving added weight to the more readily preventable diseases. The systematic consideration of each of the communicable diseases under similar heads—such as Incidence, Etiology, Mode of Transmission, and Prevention and Control—make the work valuable to health workers and physicians for ready reference.

The book also contains excellent chapters by various authors on Water, Milk and Foods; Diet, Dietary Defects, and Deficiency Diseases; and Domestic and Community Sanitation. The problem of maternal and infant mortality is clearly outlined with general measures necessary for its solution. There are also chapters on School Hygiene (Health Supervision of the School Child), Public Health Clinics and Health Centers, Rural Hygiene, Industrial Hygiene, Demography and Vital Statistics, Public Health Administration and Public Health Education and Voluntary Agencies.

ALLAN J. McLAUGHLIN
United States Public Health Service

The Trade Cycle

THE TRADE CYCLE, *by F. Lavington. P. S. King & Son, London. 113 pp. Price $1.15 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE sub-title, "An account of the causes producing rhythmical changes in the activity of business," explains that this is another study of the cyclical industrial fluctuations which constitute the severest problem for the student of unemployment. The work of three brilliant exponents of the subject, A. C. Pigou, D. H. Robertson and Wesley C. Mitchell, is made the foundation of an analysis of the facts which is followed by a suggestive chapter on "some social aspects of modern industrial organization." While opinions are still divided on the original causes of the cyclical fluctuations in production and demand, there is hope in the growing recognition of the influences that make for their preventable accentuation. Since the cumulative growth of errors in optimistic and pessimistic forecasts is due to an exaggeration of psychological tendencies, counteracting measures ought not to be beyond the means of practical possibility. The task is simplified if Mr. Lavington is right in his contention that the activity of the constructional industries leads in this swing of tendencies from over-confidence to panic. Two ways in which that exaggeration of fluctuations can be lessened are discussed: an industrial organization which would lessen the concentration of control and make for a more even distribution of incomes; and practical measures to increase the knowledge of individual business men, which would prevent unsound undertakings at times of expansion and unnecessary conservatism at times of business deflation. In addition he mentions the cooperation of the banks and efforts to hold in check a rise of prices at times of over-confidence as likely to contribute to the desired result.

Paging the Middle Class

THE RETURN OF THE MIDDLE CLASS, *by John Corbin. Scribners Sons. 353 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

ONE lays down the Return of the Middle Class with the sense that Mr. Corbin must be a facile and engaging conversationalist. The book has the quality of good talk, the free and easy discursiveness of the Players or the University Club, sufficiently salted with learned citations to create an atmosphere of gentlemanly erudition. But it also has the defects of good talk by men who discourse largely of matters of which they have only the sprightly amateur's mastery. The book contains shaky statistics, abounds in sententious but half-baked generalizations, and flounders about for a definition of its main subject.

The middle class, according to Mr. Corbin, is the sole custodian of the virtues by which alone civilization can live. It is the "brain power" of the United States. "The middle class has its feet firmly planted in the world of present needs; its mind is trained to comprehend the world and move it."

But time and again disaster has overtaken the world—always, somehow, because the middle class was not on the job, failed to assert itself, failed to make its valiant virtues dominant. One gathers that the civilizations of Greece and Rome fell for want of a properly self-assertive middle class. The great menace of our day is the same violet-like diffidence of a class which, happily for us, is beginning to realize both its powers and its obligations, and is "returning" to the rescue.

Both capital and labor are self-seeking, aggressive, subversive. The middle class is distinguished by "its traditional sense of national order and efficiency, of social solidarity and service."

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America faces destruction between the upper and nether millstones of capital and labor, that is "today as sordid and selfish as capital ever was."

And what have our saviors been doing about it? They "have stood neutral. Being more highly educated and thus less easily replaceable, they were less often turned off their jobs; or, when they were, their larger pay and their habits of thrift tided them over the rainy day. They looked on the struggle of labor and capital as a thing apart, for which they suspected some vague responsibility, perhaps, but which they felt themselves powerless to remedy. Blindly conservative in politics, for the most part, they looked to our ancient Constitution—in which, as they thought, the high 'Spirit of the Fathers' was forever crystallized—as the source of all light and leading; and so they insensibly came to the conviction that on election day their most profitable activity was golf."

Mr. Corbin has borrowed some acute observations about the decadence of geographical representation and the evils arising from the "lack of organic and functional correspondence between government and industry" from the guild socialists. He has caught up into impressive words much of the current cynicism in high places with respect to democracy. Mr. Corbin has read much, but he has read impressionistically. It may be for this reason that he is able to write with the engaging facility of the agreeable conversationalist. No one, for example, could more aptly strike off in a phrase the truth about his own book than he has done. "Something of this sort," he cleverly observes, "happens to the sociologist who sets out to discover the middle class. The snark turns boojum, and both hunter and quarry are lost."

R. W. B.

DON'T YOU EVER LET ME CATCH YOU READING THIS FILTHY HUCK FINN BOOK AGAIN! YOU OUGHT TO BE ASHAMED OF YOURSELF! WHY? I'LL TELL YOU WHY! BECAUSE HUCK FINN IS A DISGRACEFUL CHARACTER! THIS TERRIBLE BOY EVEN POKES FUN AT MISS WATSON WHO IS NOBLE AND RELIGIOUS! I'D ALMOST RATHER SEE YOU AT A BURLESQUE SHOW THAN READING THIS TRASH! NEXT THING YOU KNOW YOU'LL BE WANTING TO READ TREASURE ISLAND!
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The Social Effects of Syphilis

SYPHILIS OF THE INNOCENT, *by Harry C. and Maida H. Solomon. U. S. Interdepartmental Social Hygiene Board, Washington.* 139 *pp.*

This study of the social effects of syphilis on the family and the community, made under a grant from the United States Inter-departmental Social Hygiene Board, gives a well balanced, sane and thorough presentation of the problem of syphilis in its social aspects, by authors who are among the first to authoritatively write upon and develop the subject as it affects the family, and through the family as a unit, the community as a whole.

The non-medical social and health workers of today, profiting by the mistakes of yesterday, will do well in preparing for the work of tomorrow to give careful reading to this book by the Solomons, coupled with Stokes' Today's World Problem in Disease Prevention. They need no diagnostic or therapeutic technique. These two government publications in the hands of all workers having to do with the venereal disease problem should be a sufficiently complete and thorough background for sensible procedure, and tend toward uniformity of understanding which will bring a realization that the diagnostic process is complex, that the Wassermann test is but one link in a chain of evidence, that there is probably no "cure" in the strict sense, but a control of the disease resulting in an arrested condition and, finally, that every syphilitic is a human being—not a case or an outcast.

ALEX N. THOMSON, M.D.

The Persecuted Jews in Hungary

QUAND HORTHY EST ROI, *by Robert Tarcali. Drawings by Marcel Vertes. Edition Astra Paris.* 128 *pp. Paper bound.*

AN uninterrupted pogrom for three years, according to the author, still continues in Hungary. Many of the instances of persecution of Jews which he describes have been widely circulated; others are reported for the first time. The anti-semitic drive started with the overthrow of the communist regime in August, 1919; its severity and unprecedented continuance is the more remarkable in that previous to the war Magyars and Jews were, on the whole, much better able to live together than were some of the neighboring nationalities.

Mr. Tarcali explains the situation with need of the reaction for a scapegoat at a time of defeat and great economic hardship. Bolshevism in Hungary has been so completely routed that the stimulated hatred of it did not suffice to deviate public attention from the failings of the government and the privileged groups in the nation.

Probably there is much exaggeration in Mr. Tarcali's account which is emotional rather than objective and scientific. But if one-tenth of his stories are true, a condition exists which should arouse the indignation of the world. There have been isolated investigations by British and other sympathizers with suppressed nationalities, but so far nothing in the nature of a representative effort on the part of outsiders to get at the facts.

And the President Said to Me—

FROM McKINLEY TO HARDING, *by H. H. Kohlsaat. Scribners Sons.* 235 *pp. Price* $3.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

AMERICANS are an impatient people. They do not like to wait for anything. They want their history while they are alive. They cannot understand why Earl Haig has sealed his papers and turned them over to the British museum to be read after "taps" has been sounded for the generation who fought the war. So Americans welcome the sort of book Mr. Kohlsaat has written, an intimate personal narration of great political events of comparatively recent happening, told by one who had a share in them, and who enjoyed the friendship of the leaders. They will particularly welcome it because it is frank without being indiscreet. The reader never feels like saying "I wish he had not told that."

Mr. Kohlsaat makes no effort to give a complete account of the political history of the period since McKinley, but rather deals with incidents about which he has personal testimony to offer. These incidents however are often critical ones, such as the story of the saving of McKinley from political ruin in 1893, the inner history of the "gold plank" in the Republican platform in 1896, and the tale of the Spanish Friars in the Philippines. Because of his friendships with the presidents the author had an essential part in many of these transactions and his testimony is of value to the future historian and of interest to the present reader.

THE UNDERSTANDING OF RELIGION, *by Edwin Tenney Brewster. Houghton Mifflin Co.* 133 *pp. Price* $1.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

Here is a teacher of astronomy and geology who writes of religion with complete disregard of theology, and with a candor and freedom exceedingly rare among laymen in America, also with a great deal of humor and sympathetic understanding of human motives which take the sting from any comment which, expressed in academic form, might be offensive. Here is a typical sample of his engaging discourse: "Men have said hard things of Sir Isaac Newton for clinging somewhat too long to his early theory concerning the nature of light—and now 'the New Physics' goes back to Newton's view of light, while at the same time it questions Newtonian gravitation! To scoff at any serious opinion is not to have read history."

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THE CHRISTIAN REVOLUTION, *by Henry T. Hodgkin. George H. Doran Co. 316 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE CHRISTIAN DOCTRINE OF PEACE, *by James Hastings. Scribners Sons. 300 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

That some at least among Christian leaders are seeking a solution of the church's part in preventing war is evidenced by such volumes as these. They do not think of war as merely the clash of armies but as the terrible destruction of human life and human happiness brought on by the industrial struggle, the combat of classes and groups, as well as the contests of nations. They think the church has a vital responsibility for the ending of this, and they further think that it can be ended by applying the principles of Jesus in practical straightforward fashion to the problems behind the struggle. Mr. Hodgkin presents a theory of social progress derived from the teaching of Jesus, a rather practical theory on the whole. It is the social gospel in the highest sense. Dr. Hastings' book, issued after his death, is one of his well-known series on Great Christian Doctrines. It is a compilation from many sources, and meant to be a mine of handy material for those who would speak on peace, not as an economic necessity but as a religious demand.

PREACHING BY LAYMEN, *by Ozora S. Davis. Fleming H. Revell Co. 203 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

Roger Babson, who writes the foreword of this book, thinks that we are in the beginning of a period when laymen will go everywhere preaching the things Jesus taught. Dr. Davis, the president of Chicago Theological Seminary, presents here a sane and balanced manual for the guidance of such men.

ANCIENT HEBREW STORIES AND THEIR MODERN INTERPRETATION, *by W. G. Jordan. George H. Doran Co. 344 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

The critical study of Old Testament narratives has not lessened the importance of these ancient records for human thought and life today. Dr. Jordan sets forth their value in a sympathetic study, which is scholarly without being over-technical for the lay mind.

CREATIVE FORCES IN JAPAN, *by Galen M. Fisher. Missionary Education Movement. 248 pp. Illustrated. Price $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

Though admittedly popular rather than scientific, this little book deserves careful reading by students of Far Eastern affairs. It is written from a long and intimate experience and entirely without the bias so often evident in the books of missionaries to credit every praiseworthy circumstance to the efforts of the foreign missions. On the other hand it also avoids the note of flattery to the Japanese. It is a frank appraisal such as one would expect from a friend close enough to tell one's faults as well as one's virtues. The present conflict between liberalism and reaction in Japan is described with great clarity. One thing that stands out is the enormous effect of English and American political and social changes on public opinion in Japan.

CAPITAL'S DUTY TO THE WAGE EARNER, *by John Calder. Longmans, Green & Co. 326 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

A study of labor relation which is based upon nearly forty years' continuous and varied experience in industry. "It is capitalism's move," says Mr. Calder, and he "appeals to the able organizers of our present material prosperity, to the financial supporters of industry, and to the employers of the United States, their executives of every rank, and, those fitting themselves for management and social service to glimpse a worthier capitalism and to substitute statesmanship for skilful opportunism, economic strategy and militancy." Part of the material in the book was previously published in The Survey [The Faith of an Industrial Engineer, Survey Graphic, November, 1922, p. 154]

FINANCIAL INCENTIVES FOR EMPLOYEES AND EXECUTIVES, *compiled by Daniel Bloomfield. Introduction by Meyer Bloomfield. H. W. Wilson Co. Two volumes. 325 and 407 pp. Price $4.80 postpaid of The Survey.*

This collection of references, articles and original contributions of data on systems of wage payment, bonuses, thrift plans, profit-sharing, stock participation, mutual benefit associations, pensions and other financial incentives to efficiency and loyalty serves a most useful purpose not hitherto met in anything like as comprehensive a way. It is true, a mere comparison of all these themes will not enable an employer to arrive at a workable or desirable method to meet his particular needs; that requires a more critical analysis than the authors have attempted in the present case. Nor can the book be considered altogether exhaustive in its enumeration of possible plans; it merely describes those that have actually been applied but does not discuss with any thoroughness the value of these financial stimuli in comparison with other possible stimuli—such, for instance, as a really scientific method of promotion or systems of democratic participation in management. Of course, the authors have dealt with some of these considerations in other books, and, even as it is, the present work is very large. But we should have liked to see more of a suggestion that before embarking upon any of the methods described here an employer would do well to canvass a larger field of possibilities.

BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONS, *by Rudolph M. Binder. Prentice-Hall, Inc. 433 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

One need not at all agree with Professor Binder's social philosophy to find his book interesting, useful and stimulating. As a textbook for students of commerce it is frankly experimental: it attempts to show the interdependence between business and the professions and the fact that business itself tends to become and must become professional. There is also much emphasis on the social motive in commerce.

PUBLIC FINANCE, *by M. E. Robinson. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 172 pp. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

J. M. Keynes is editing the series of Cambridge Economic Handbooks, of which this volume is the third—a series attempting to restate for the general reader the principles which are the basis of the crucial economic principles of today. This volume discusses in some detail the various aspects of taxation and the practical problems thereof, and points the way to future policy. The author is lecturer in economics at Manchester University.

VENTILATION, *Report of the New York State Commission on Ventilation. E. P. Dutton & Co. 620 pp. Illustrated. Price $15.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A commission made up of such experts as C.-E. A. Winslow, D. D. Kimball, F. S. Lee, James Alexander Miller, E. B. Phelps and E. L. Thorndike presents in this volume the results of four years' careful experimental study of the effects of such varying atmospheric conditions as occur in the life and work of the ordinary individual and of the practical working of various systems of ventilation in the schoolrooms of New York City and other places. The findings of the commission were discussed at some length by Virgil Jordan in The Survey of December 15, 1922 [p. 383].

CONSTANTINOPLE TODAY, OR THE PATHFINDER SURVEY OF CONSTANTINOPLE, *a Study in Oriental Social Life, under the direction of Clarence Richard Johnson, M.A. Macmillian Co. 418 pp. Illustrated. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Eight organizations interested in betterment work in Turkey cooperated in making this survey of economic and social conditions in Constantinople, their work directed by the professor of sociology at Robert College. The result is a comprehensive and accurate account of present conditions in civic administration, community organization, industrial life, refugee aid and orphanages, widowhood, adult delinquency, recreation and the native schools. Readers of The Survey have had a preliminary look at the volume in Professor Johnson's article, Constantinople, which was published in Survey Graphic, October, 1922 [p. 36].

A BOOK ABOUT MYSELF, *by Theodore Dreiser. Boni & Liveright. 502 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

Theodore Dreiser has written his autobiography without reticences, but also without inspiration. Throughout these five hundred pages of detailed record there is no gleam of humor, no charm of perspective. And yet in the incidents of his journalistic career is a wealth of interesting material; the book would have gained if the author had not taken his subject so seriously.

JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU, *by Henri-Frederic Amiel. B. W. Huebsch. 95 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

"Letting all the old quarrels sleep, we propose to recall in a few words the career of Rousseau, then to seek for the deeplying reasons of his success, and finally to pass a rapid judgment upon his thoughts and his work." Amiel's address on the hundredth anniversary of Rousseau's death is now translated; Mr. Brooks has made it an English essay of literary charm.

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

THAT ITINERANT organizer, Mayo Fesler, whose departure from Brooklyn to Chicago The Survey recorded not so long ago, has now moved on—or rather back—to Cleveland. The adoption of the council-manager form of government in Cleveland, with a proportional representation election coming in the fall, creates a fresh and engaging opportunity for civic service. This opportunity Cleveland is meeting by the organization of the Citizens' League, which pools the interest of several existing associations, including the Civic League, of which Mr. Fesler was secretary from 1910 to 1918, and the younger Association for Criminal Justice, which grew out of the Cleveland Foundation's criminal justice survey.

THE American Child Health Association announces that Julia C. Lathrop has consented to serve as a consultant to the association. Among further important additions to its staff are these: Dr. George T. Palmer, formerly epidemiologist with the Detroit Department of Health, as research director; Dr. Alexander M. Carr, temporarily assisting in medical work; Grace Brinton, formerly head of the department of home economics at the state normal school, Harrisonburg, Va., to the staff of the health education division.

MARGUERITE WALES has been appointed director of the Visiting Nurse Service of the Henry Street Settlement, succeeding Annie W. Goodrich, whose appointment as dean of the Yale University School of Nursing was recorded in Survey Graphic for June as the first appointment in our history of a woman to be head of a school in a men's university. Miss Wales is a graduate of Vassar and of the Presbyterian Hospital Training School for Nurses. She has for two years been developing training courses at Leland Stanford, Jr., University.

ORTHODOX JUDAISM and the common welfare will both lose by the death of Albert Lucas, secretary of the Union of Orthodox Jewish Congregations of America, a lifelong philanthropist, and secretary of the Joint Distribution Committee during the crowded years when the contributions of Jews to all groups were being pooled in enormous amounts for the relief of Jews in Europe. Mr. Lucas was one of the organizers of the Union of Orthodox Congregations, and in behalf of that association was one of the pioneers in the Central Committee, the first of the Jewish war relief bodies.

THE NEW YORK COUNTY chapter of the American Red Cross announces that John S. Ellsworth has resigned from the directorship, retaining the position of chairman of the Board; and that Florence M. Johnson has been appointed acting director.

MRS. CHARLES CARY RUMSEY has accepted the chairmanship of the Committee on Mental Hygiene of the New York State Charities Aid Association. Mental hygiene has been a major interest with Mrs. Rumsey, as with her mother, Mrs. E. H. Harriman. She was one of the organizers of the New York Committee on Feeblemindedness, later merged with the committee on which she now serves.

AN ARTICLE on Mrs. Barnett, widow of Canon S. A. Barnett, the first warden of Toynbee Hall, which appeared in The Survey at the time of her visit two years ago, was entitled The Young Visiter. Her astonishing youthfulness has again been proved by her ability, at the age of seventy-two, to have her first effort as a painter in oils hung in the Royal Academy. It is true, Mrs. Barnett had occasionally sketched in water colors; but we learn that she had only had five lessons in the use of the new medium last summer when she adventured successfully in the most troublesome of arts.

SHERWOOD EDDY, of the Y. M. C. A., has become a sort of unofficial ambassador of American social workers to England. This is the third summer that he has taken to Toynbee Hall a large party to attend a seminar on social and industrial questions. Among the "students" this year are Dean William Scarlett, of St. Louis, James H. Maurer, president of the Pennsylvania State Federation of Labor, Professor F. E. Lumley, of Columbus, John Van Schaick, of Boston, and several editors, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. secretaries and missionaries from the United States, China and Japan, ministers and students.

GEORGE A. SOPER, recently appointed managing director of the American Society for the Control of Cancer, is the man who ran to ground "Typhoid Mary," the famous cook who carried typhoid wherever she worked; and the man who engineered the sanitary rehabilitation of Galveston after the flood of 1900. His comprehensive studies of the problems of subway air and sewage in New York represent twelve years of work.

ALTHOUGH America has no hand in the House of Commons she has a leg there. It is worn by John Jacob Astor, recently returned to the House of Commons, and it was made at the Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men, New York.

WHEN Frances Perkins was appointed by Governor Smith a member of the Industrial Board in the New York State Department of Labor she left vacant the executive secretaryship of the New York Council of Immigrant Education. J. B. Buell, lately a member of the staff of the American Association of Social Workers, has been appointed to this post.

ST. LOUIS has called to the position of assistant director of the Community Council Bessie A. McClenahan, formerly assistant director of the Missouri School of Social Economy, and known especially for her work in establishing the so-called Iowa plan of County Boards of Public Welfare. Her work with the Community Council will be in connection with the departments of Neighborhood Work and Recreation, Delinquents, and Corrections and Americanization and the new department of Inter-racial Cooperation.

THE Y. M. C. A. of St. Louis has a new general secretary, L. C. Haworth, succeeding Philemon Bevis, who retires after 11 years of service. Mr. Haworth comes from the Y. M. C. A. of Youngstown, Ohio, with a record of having brought that organization up into the first rank.

TO EXPERIENCED nurses with special interest in children, the American Child Health Association offers $10,000 in scholarships of from $200 to $1,000, to make possible specialized education for child care and treatment. The scholarships are offered for the school year 1923-24 and for the summer session of 1924, and may be used in colleges, normal schools and university departments of nursing, in graduate work in schools of nursing, and in connection with practical experience.

THE REPORT of the Household Economics Group of the National Conference, which should have had its place in the Kindred Group Section of the conference number of The Survey, unfortunately arrived too late, when the magazine was on the press; so it can only be summarized here.

Mrs. John G. Oliver, chairman of the Home Economics Committee of Cleveland Associated Charities, presided. Dr. Charles Langworthy, chairman of the Home Economics Division of the States Relation Service, spoke at the first meeting on the inclusive subject of the relation of household economics to and its dependence on economic conditions in general, as these conditions affect standards of material living, education and recreation. He spoke among other things of the work his department has been doing in studies of nutrition, textiles, and measurements of household labor.

At the second meeting of the group, Professor Benjamin R. Andrews of Teachers College, Columbia University, went into the question of budgets, descriptively and technically, pointing out among other things the importance of the children in the family, as well as the man and woman, working consciously to carry through the common economic plan. Following Dr. Andrews' speech three members of the group spoke on the relation of various racial temperaments to budget making; Gertrude Gates Mudge, formerly of the American Red Cross in New York and now with the American Dietetic Association, discussed the Italian scheme of living, with its disproportionate emphasis on food. Miss Sadow of the United Hebrew Charities of New York talked about Jewish religious customs and their effect on the budget; Mrs. Glenn of the Washington Associated Charities discussed budgets for colored families. Charlotte R. Lamond of the New York Charity Organization Society presided over the general discussion that followed.

At the business meeting of the group, Edith Massee of Milwaukee was elected chairman, Marcia Ward of Detroit vice-chairman, Margaret Hall of Cleveland secretary-treasurer, and Charlotte R. Lamond chairman of the program committee for next year's conference.

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COMMUNICATIONS

Overlapping or Dovetailing?

To the Editor: On page 355 of The Survey of June 15, there is a communication, "Did California loop her own noose?" signed by Caroline Frances Kennedy of San Francisco.

Permit me to make comment upon just one paragraph reading as follows: 'Still other conflicts arise between the State Board of Immigration and Housing, the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Industrial Welfare Commission, all of which should, ideally, be pulling together for the same ends."

The act creating the Commission of Immigration and Housing was passed by the California Legislature of 1913, by practically unanimous vote. The members of the legislature and the governor were thoroughly convinced that the work outlined by the commission in its creating act warranted the setting-up of an independent agency.

Attacks were made upon the commission during the legislature of 1915 on the ground that its work was largely a duplication of the activities of other boards. Almost entirely these attacks came from the opponents of all forms of social welfare work. That they were not made in good faith was evidenced by the fact that not one single instance of substantiating evidence was submitted. Similar attacks were presented during the legislative sessions of 1917, 1919 and 1921.

During the session of 1921, the Better America Federation and allied interests introduced a bill that would have crippled the state social agencies of California. The legislature threw this aside and passed a substitute measure which became Chapter 604 of the laws of 1921, creating a Department of Labor and Industrial Relations composed of (1) the Industrial Accident Commission; (2) the Commission of Immigration and Housing; (3) the Industrial Welfare Commission; (4) the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This law merely gave official sanction to practices of cooperation and coordination which had been in effect for eight or nine years. The law finally provided that "The Department of Labor and Industrial Relations shall submit a report to the Governor and to the 45th session of the Legislature (1923) embodying a complete plan of reorganization and departmentalization of the activities (of the four boards), herein mentioned."

The report mentioned above was submitted to the governor and to the legislature on January 12, 1923, as the result of a very comprehensive study extending over approximately eighteen months. The report states that a special committee, which went into the matter from every angle "has found the claims of duplication and overlapping of activities to be without foundation" and recommends that there be no modification whatsoever in the law passed by the legislature of 1921. The report was signed by Will J. French, President of the Industrial Accident Commission; Katherine Philips Edson, Member of the Industrial Welfare Commission; Walter G. Mathewson, Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics; and Simon J. Lubin, President of the Commission of Immigration and Housing.

Of course, it is possible to contend that the four who signed this report were interested parties; but in answer to that, we submit that there are no other persons within the state more competent to form a sound judgment in the premises. Furthermore, we submit the fact that the legislature and the governor, who by no means could be accused of being over-sympathetic with social work, accepted unqualifiedly the recommendations made in the report.

Simon J. Lubin

Sacramento, Calif.

Prison Reform in Louisiana

To the Editor: I note in the last edition of The Survey, in an article in reference to the scandals connected with the prisons in Florida, a statement that county or parish prisoners in this state are still leased out to private contractors. I do not know where you get this information, but I certainly believe you are mistaken, as the Contract Lease System, both state and parish, was abolished in Louisiana years ago, I believe as far

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back as 1901. I have been a director of the Prison Reform Association of Louisiana a long time and secretary for many years and I have never in that period heard of prisoners, either state or parish, having been leased to private contractors.

CHARLES H. PATTERSON
Secretary, Prison Reform Association of Louisiana, New Orleans

[The fact seems to be that the practice of Louisiana is better than its law. The Survey's informant included Louisiana among the states leasing out convicts on the strength of an unrepealed statute of 1908 (Act No. 204) which permits police juries of parishes—the Louisiana equivalent of counties—to hire out convicts under certain provisions to private persons for work only in the parish where the prisoner was convicted. The parish of Orleans is excepted. The present Constitution of Louisiana provides, however (Article III, Section 33), that state convicts shall be employed only on public roads or other public works, convict farms, or in manufactories owned by the state, and specifically forbids their leasing to any "person or persons, or corporation, private or public or quasi-public." Mr. Patterson's testimony indicates that however the constitutional provision may be construed, prisoners are actually not being leased out. THE EDITOR.]

Thank You!

TO THE EDITOR: Congratulations on The Survey for June 15, reporting "Fifty Years of Social Work In Seven Days at Washington."

For those who did not have an opportunity to attend the conference, I am sure this issue of The Survey gives in an interesting way the more important points. Your report is of equal value to those who were there. Of course, no one of us could individually come in direct contact with more than a small part of the conference.

EDWIN D. SOLENBERGER
General Secretary Children's Aid Society, Philadelphia, Pa.

TO THE EDITOR: I have for some months been contemplating the pleasure I might have in writing you a note to tell you that I like The Survey as it is edited at the present time very much. This applies both to the Graphic and the Midmonthly.

The June Midmonthly is the immediate cause of this note of appreciation. I was unfortunately unable to attend the conference this year, but have found considerable consolation in the excellent reviews of the various subjects treated at the conference, that appear in the current number. As a matter of fact, I have perhaps gotten more ideas from your reviews than I would have from actual attendance at the meetings, for various reasons.

EDWIN G. EKLUND
General Secretary Association of Charities, Canton, Ohio

Talking with—Not at the Public

TO THE EDITOR: May I suggest that The Survey publish in the near future discussions of publicity in social work? Of course it is an ancient subject, yet in spite of all that has been said and done, I believe that publicity is still one of the weakest spots in social work. Since I left the National Child Labor Committee last year, I have been more or less in the position of being on the outside looking in, and, frankly, I am discouraged at social work's failures to get over. Probably something very interesting will come out of the public opinion section at the National Conference, and if it does I hope The Survey will play it up for all there is in it, and encourage open discussion in its columns.

The "engineer's" article and subsequent letters, together with the letter in this issue on "Is Social Work Dead?" all seem to me to be getting close to the point. For the truth is that after due thought on this subject of "getting over," I have concluded the trouble is something in the psychology of the social worker, in the mental line he is still apt to draw between himself and the "general public." Of course I do not mean to imply that all social workers do this. The ones who best "get over" certainly don't. But I think you will agree with me that there is a kind of mental segregation or mental clannishness in the social worker's world, and that unless it is recognized and com-

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Director the Detroit Community Union

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THE SURVEY'S DIRECTORY OF SOCIAL AGENCIES

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORKERS—Miss M. A. Cannon, president, 105 East 22nd Street, New York City; Miss Lena R. Waters, executive secretary, The Johns Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, Md. Organization to promote development of social work in hospitals and dispensaries. Annual meeting with National Conference of Social Work.

AMERICAN CHILD HEALTH ASSOCIATION (formerly American Child Hygiene Association and Child Health Organization of America)—Headquarters, 532 17th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Administrative Offices, 370 7th Ave., New York. Herbert Hoover, pres.; L. Emmett Holt, M.D.; Livingston Farrand, M.D.; Thomas D. Wood, M.D.; 1st, 2nd, 3rd vice-presidents, respectively; Corcoran Thom, treas.; Philip Van Ingen, M.D., sec'y. To promote health among children from conception to maturity—this to be accomplished through cooperation with parents, doctors, nurses, teachers; and other health workers; by dissemination of scientific information and teaching methods in schools, through conferences, addresses, pamphlets, publicity material, and a monthly magazine, "Mother and Child."

AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION—K. L. Butterfield, president; Henry Israel, executive secretary. Room 1849, Grand Central Terminal Bldg., New York City. Emphasizes the human aspect of country life. Annual membership $3.00 includes "The Country Life Bulletin."

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Miss Lenna F. Cooper, sec'y; Battle Creek Sanitarium, Battle Creek, Mich. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, schools, institutions and community. Publishes Journal of Home Economics. 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN PEACE SOCIETY—Founded 1828, labors for an international peace of justice. Its official organ is the Advocate of Peace, $2.00 a year. Arthur Deerin Call, secretary and editor, 612-614 Colorado Building, Washinpton, D. C.

AMERICAN PRISON ASSOCIATION—Annual Congress of American penologists, criminologists, social workers in delinquency. Next Congress Boston, Massachusetts, September 13-19, 1923. E. R. Cass, general secretary, 135 East 15th Street, New York City.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER—Frank J. Osborne, exec. sec'y; 370 Seventh Ave. New York. To disseminate knowledge concerning symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publication free on request. Annual membership dues, $5.00.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. To promote a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education; to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

THE CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA—C .C. Carstens, director. 130 E. 22d Street, New York City. A League of children's agencies to secure improved standards and methods in their various fields of work. It also cooperates with other children's agencies, cities, states, churches and other groups to work out worth-while results in phases of child welfare in which they are interested.

COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN—305 W. 98th Street, New York. Miss Rose Brenner, pres.; Mrs. Harry Sternberger, ex. sec'y. Promotes civic cooperation, education, religion and social welfare in the United States, Canada, Cuba, Europe.
Department of Immigrant Aid—799 Broadway. Mrs. S. J. Rosensohn, chairman. For the protection and education of immigrant women and girls.

COMMUNITY SERVICE—315 Fourth Avenue, New York City. A national civic movement for promoting citizenship through right use of leisure. It will, on request, help local communities work out leisure time programs. H. S. Braucher, secretary.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA—Constituted by 30 Protestant denominations. Rev. Chas. S. Macfarland, Rev. S. M. Cavert, gen'l sec'ys; 105 E. 22nd Street, New York.
Commission on the Church and Social Service—Rev. Worth M. Tippy, exec. sec'y; Rev. F. Ernest Johnson, research, sec'y; Agnes H. Campbell, research ass't; Inez M. Cavert, librarian.

HAMPTON INSTITUTE—Trains Negro and Indian youth for community service. Advanced courses: agriculture, builders, business, home-economics, normal. Publishes "Southern Workman" and free material on Negro problems. J. E. Gregg, principal.

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—First appointed 1854, located New York City 1866, incorporated 1883. Headquarters office, 347 Madison Ave., New York City, N. Y. Tel. Vanderbilt 1200. Branch offices, Chicago, Atlanta, Denver. Chairman, James M. Speers; Treasurer, B. H. Fancher; General Sec'y, John R. Mott. The Committee maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries for service in the interests of the Young Men's Christian Associations at home and abroad.

JOINT COMMITTEE ON METHODS OF PREVENTING DELINQUENCY—Graham Romeyn Taylor, executive director, 52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York. To promote the adoption of sound methods in this field, with particular reference to psychiatric clinics, visiting teacher work, and training for these and similar services; to conduct related studies, education and publication; and to interpret the work of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF LEGAL AID ORGANIZATIONS—Officers: President, Albert F. Bigelow, 111 Devonshire Street, Boston; Secretary, John S. Bradway, 133 South 12th St., Philadelphia; Chairman of Executive Committee, Leonard McGee, 239 Broadway, New York. This organization was formed in 1912 as a national association of all legal aid societies and bureaus in the United States to develop and extend legal aid work. Copies of Proceedings at convention in December 1922, including report on relation between social service and legal aid, may be had on request.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMENS CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,152 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 174 American secretaries at work in 55 centers in the Orient, Latin America and Europe. The National Board also maintains a National Training School of graduate type at 135 East 52nd Street, New York City, for the professional training of its leadership. The training is given in two parts. The preliminary course consists of six weeks of lecture work (generally given in the summer session) and nine months practical experience on salary under supervision. The advanced course requires a full year of resident academic study, upon the successful completion of which a professional certificate is granted. Special emphasis is placed upon training in group work.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC WELFARE COUNCIL—1312 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C.
General Secretary, Rev. John J. Burke, C.S.P.
Departments—Education, Laws and Legislation, Social Action. Press and Publicity, Lay Organizations (National Council of Catholic Men and National Council for Catholic Women.)
National Catholic Service School for Women, 2400 Nineteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejoy, sec'y; 1 East 104th Street, New York. Industrial, agricultural investigations. Works for improved laws and administration; children's codes. Studies health, schools, recreation, dependency, delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10. $25 and $100; includes monthly bulletin, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC.—Chas. F. Powlison, gen. sec'y; 70 Fifth Ave., New York. Originates and publishes exhibit material which visualizes the principles and conditions affecting the health, well being and education of children. Cooperates with educators, public health agencies, and all child welfare groups in community, city or state-wide service through exhibits, child welfare campaigns, etc.

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NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Grace Abbott, president, Washington, D. C.; W. H. Parker, secretary, 25 East Ninth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-first annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Toronto, Canada. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Edward M. Van Cleve, managing director; Lewis H. Carris, field sec'y; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, sec'y; 130 E. 22nd St., New York. Objects: To furnish information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, publish literature of movement—samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Committee.

NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE—44 E. 23rd St., New York. Mrs. Florence Kelley, gen'l sec'y. Promotes legislation for enlightened standards for women and minors in industry and for honest products; minimum wage commissions, eight hour day, no night work, federal regulation food and packing industries; "honest cloth" legislation. Publications available.

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NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING—Member, National Health Council—Anne A. Stevens, R.N., director, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York. For development and standardization of public health nursing. Maintains library and educational service. Official Magazine, "Public Health Nurse."

NATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION SERVICE—309 Homer Building, Washington, D. C. To obtain progressive legislation for physical education. Established at the request of a committee created by the United States Bureau of Education; 35 national organizations cooperating. Maintained by the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

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NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—For social service among Negroes. L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y; 127 E. 23rd St., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

NATIONAL WOMAN'S CHRISTIAN TEMPERANCE UNION—Anna A. Gordon, president; Headquarters, 1730 Chicago Avenue, Evanston, Illinois. To secure effective enforcement of the Eighteenth Amendment, to advance the welfare of the American people through the departments of Child Welfare, Women in Industry, Social Morality, Scientific Temperance Instruction, Americanization and other allied fields of endeavor. Official publication "The Union Signal" published at Headquarters.

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE—Mrs. Raymond Robins, honorary president; Mrs. Maud Swartz, president; 311 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Stands for self-government in the work shop through organization and also for the enactment of protective legislation. Information given.

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WORKERS' EDUCATION BUREAU OF AMERICA—Spencer Miller, Jr., sec'y; 465 W. 23rd St. A clearing-house for Workers' Education.

SINCE the United States Supreme Court declared the Minimum Wage Act of the District of Columbia unconstitutional, the Rev. John A. Ryan, director of the Department of Social Action of the National Catholic Welfare Council, has been studying the United States Constitution with a fine-tooth comb. There have been a grist of proposals of constitutional amendments in behalf of the minimum wage and child labor. Father Ryan makes the arresting declaration in an early issue of The Survey that the desired amendment is already there. It was written in the original text of the Constitution as drafted and as passed. It has been moribund for a hundred years. Why not use it?

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bated it is fatal to the business of making social work understood and of understanding the rest of the world!

So much of the publicity I see resolves itself into talking down or talking at, that I wish more social workers would develop the habit of talking with. The Survey, I think, does. And that is one reason why I am so much interested in it. And, while I realize that "publicity" sounds like an outworn subject, I hope The Survey will find ways of promoting discussion, not of the surface technique, but of the underlying aims and the causes of failure, out of which, of course, there should come ideas for bettering it. HELEN DWIGHT FISHER

New York

The Gregarious Instinct

TO THE EDITOR: I don't think I should differ seriously from Mr. Joseph Lee regarding the "gregarious instinct." (See his letter in The Survey for April 15.) In fact I have derived valuable material from his writings on play. I admit his facts, and could adduce more of somewhat the same sort—so many more, and so various, that I doubt if "gregarious instinct" is adequate to cover them. My idea is that the instinctive social tendencies of human nature are general and multiform rather than specific and somewhat exceptional, as seems to me to be suggested by the term in question. Does it not imply that a human nature, generally insular, has at a particular point a special social impulse, the "gregarious instinct"? Perhaps I am influenced by the fact that the most conspicuous users of the term, like Nietszche and the laboratory psychologists, are arrant individualists. Perhaps the word "sympathy" in my article, was not very well chosen. In my book Human Nature and the Social Order, Chapter III, I have used "sociability" to indicate this generally social predisposition of our natures.

Ann Arbor, Mich. CHARLES H. COOLEY

The Lobby, the Real Legislature

TO THE EDITOR: An elaborate and more or less effective technique has been developed in securing social legislation by means of public opinion and lobbying. Telegrams pour in upon the strategic senator at the supposedly psychological moment. The gas barrage and bombardment, however, are not effective on "controlled" representatives. We hear constantly how certain "interests" are the "real power" behind legislative votes.

Often the actual persons are known whose influence, direct or through corporations, stands in the way of progressive laws.

Has it never occurred to legislative reformers to turn propaganda directly upon general staff headquarters, smoke them out, and let them know, by means of telegrams, if necessary, that public opinion knows who they are and holds them responsible? THOMAS D. ELIOT

Evanston, Ill.

THE PUBLICITY SHOP

THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES of El Paso, Texas, has conceived, planned and executed a speechless annual dinner. Of course when the guests arrived in the dining hall, they found the printed reports of the year's activities at their places. But instead of having all the officials of the board arise at the end of the salad course and discourse on the achievements of the society while the ice cream deliquesced from a mountain into a puddle and the coffee was treated to a chill, the dignitaries kept their seats and speeches while the report was acted out.

The little play represented a day in the activities of the charities association, showing typical cases and the way they are handled. The secretary dictated a letter to the president of the society, giving a resumé of the year's activities.

A "tin can tourist," who wanted food, gas and oil for his family and flivver, but would not work for them; a widow with four children clinging to her skirts; a "panhandler"; and an old man who had been swindled out of his property, appeared in turn and after dramatically stating their respective cases were appropriately dealt with.

The annual report of the Associated Charities for 1922 was so impressed on the minds of those who attended the dinner that it was unnecessary for them to refer to the printed reports they received. And the party was absolutely "speechless."

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WANTED: Teacher and supervisor of field work in rural public health nursing in school of public health nursing. 4537 SURVEY.

WANTED: By Jewish Family Welfare Society in a large Eastern city two or three social case workers. Candidates with experience preferred, but college graduates with training in social science will be considered. 4535 SURVEY.

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JEWISH woman of education, refinement and ability as house mother to twenty-five children in modern cottage home. Address, Superintendent, 2700 Raynor Ave., Baltimore, Md.

KINDERGARTNER wanted in a Children's Institution in Brooklyn, New York. 4531 SURVEY.

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Specially expert social case workers
colored and white
ages 25 to 35
Entrance Salary—$1700
Civil Service Examination on July 25
Well qualified applicants appointed immediately
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NURSES, Surgeons, Physicians, Masseuse, Matrons, Dietitians, Companions and Attendants; positions everywhere. Exchange Directory, 25 Sacramento St., Cambridge, Mass.

WANTED: Competent man to take charge of Physical Training department in large Jewish center in Southern city. Apply stating full particulars of education and experience. 4542 SURVEY.

WANTED: Dietitian to take charge of Department of Home Economics of a Jewish Family Welfare Society in a large eastern city. Fair salary. 4550 SURVEY.

WANTED: Trained superintendent to take full charge in orphanage of thirty children. Also reliable, competent woman for nursery. Apply Miss Jennie Pope, South Portland, Maine.

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ASSISTANT Headworker wanted in well organized Settlement in Eastern city. 4552 SURVEY.

THE Jewish Board of Guardians, an organization dealing with behavior problems, has openings for case workers, men and women, college education and training or experience in psychiatry social work preferred. Write to Mr. Jess Perlman, 356 Second Avenue, New York City.

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TEACHERS WANTED

TEACHERS wanted for public and private schools, colleges and universities. Education Service, Steger Building, Chicago; Southern Building, Washington; 1254 Amsterdam Ave., New York.

WANTED: Issues of The SURVEY for August 15, Oct. 1, 15, 1922, Jan. 1, 15, Febr. 15, April 15, May 15, 1923. Unexpected demand has wiped out our stock. Subscribers who do not need their issues for future use will confer a real favor by returning them to us for the use of libraries and colleges. The SURVEY, 112 E. 19 St., New York.

SITUATIONS WANTED

REGISTERED NURSE with social service training, experienced organizer in public health, hospital social service and tuberculosis work, desires permanent position. 4548 SURVEY.

YOUNG MAN, college graduate with several years' experience, desires connection with Jewish Organization as Boys' Worker. Best references. 4544 SURVEY.

MAN AND WIFE, able, reliable, experienced institution work, desire position superintendent and matron, respectively. Institution for delinquent or dependent children. Best references. 4529 SURVEY.

TRAINED social worker, public speaker and writer, magazine and newspaper experience, leader of women's clubs and other groups (literary, dramatic, social, discussion), practical business experience, college woman, thirty-four, desires opening where ability to meet and organize people is essential. 4518 SURVEY.

UNENCUMBERED Protestant, American, middle-aged woman desires engagement September 1st as matron, hostess or housemother; former teacher; good housekeeper and executive. 4527 SURVEY.

HOME Economics Teacher with training and three years' experience in social work in South, desires position as industrial welfare worker. Employed, but desire change in early fall. 4551 SURVEY.

CASEWORKER with over ten years' experience, now receiving $3,000 salary, desires opportunity for further development by change. 4553 SURVEY.

TRAINED SOCIAL WORKER, public speaker, for executive position with small hospital or assistant to executive in large hospital. University and Red Cross Executive training. Teaching Juvenile court, settlement and hospital social experience. Best references. 4554 SURVEY.

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In our new home-study course, "COOKING FOR PROFIT." Booklet on request.

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THE CHILD HEALTH SCHOOL. By Lydia J. Roberts, Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington. Price, 5 cents.

THE KING AND THE MINER: A CONTRAST. By J. C. Welsh, M.P. The Maiden Speech Before the House of Commons. I. L. P. Publication Department, 308 Gray's Inn Road, London, W. C. 1. Price, one penny.

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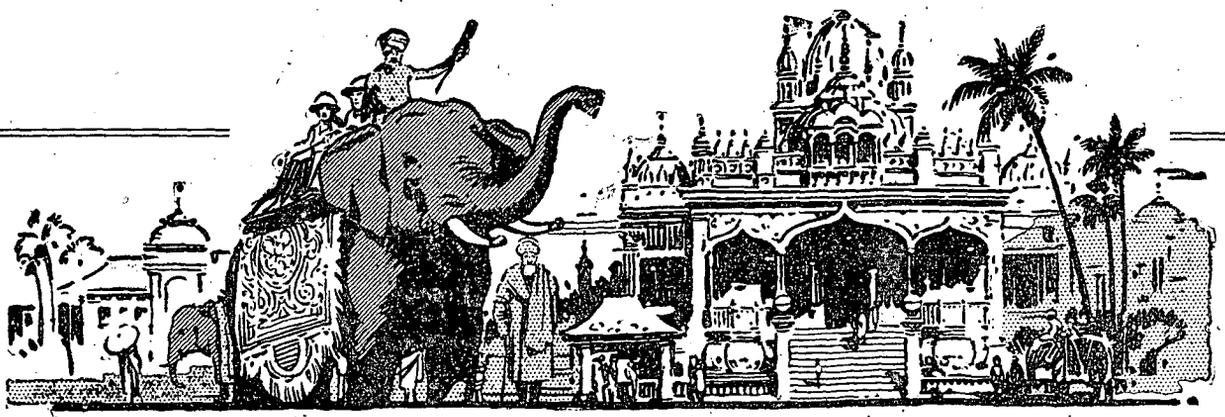

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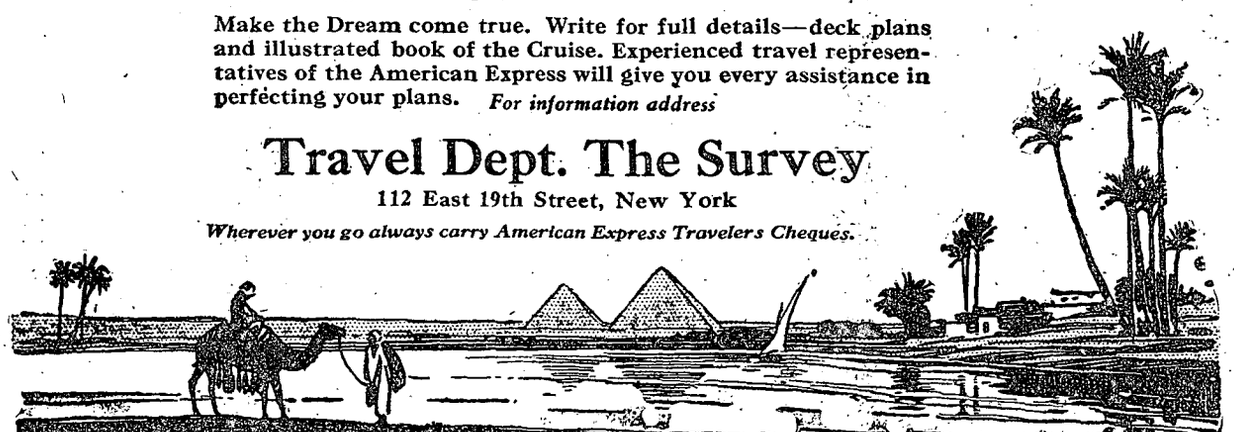

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